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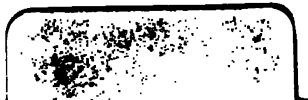
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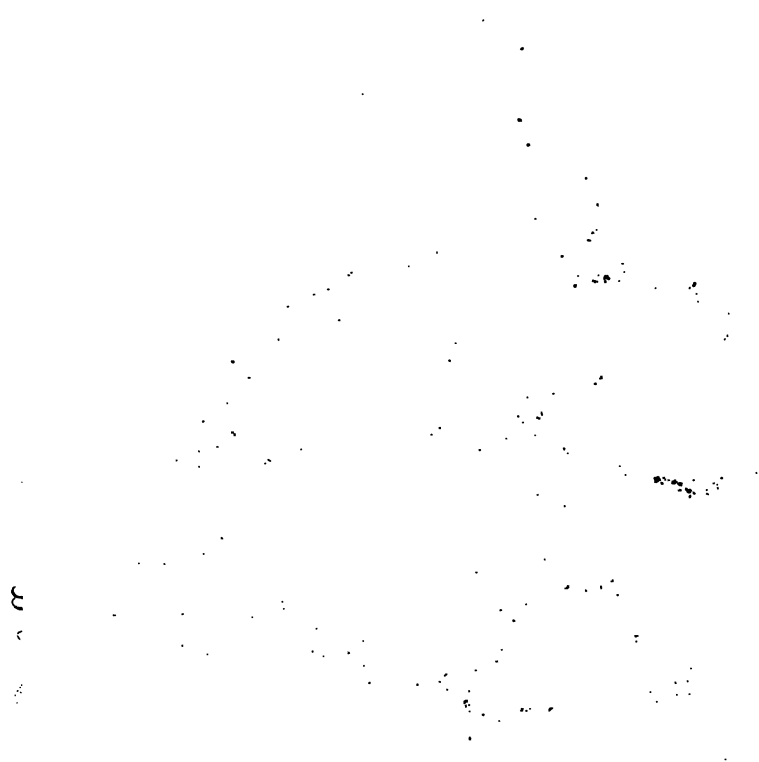
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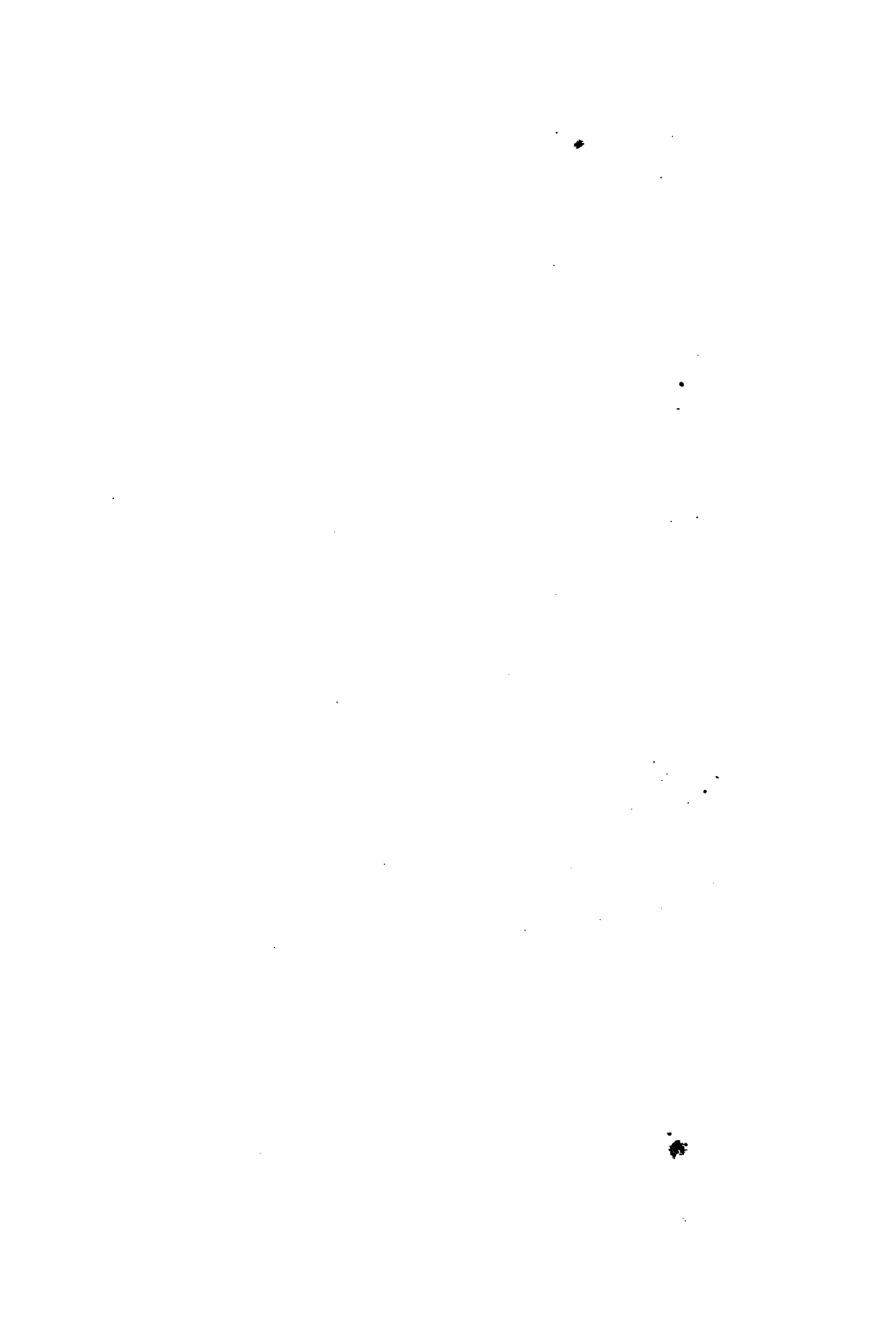




*Admiral Blake.*

*Engraved by Mr. J. Tasson  
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He was twice married, and by his first wife had five sons and a daughter, who all died young. His second wife survived him more than twelve years. By her he had a son and five daughters. This son died young; but four of the daughters survived him.

"It is not, in our opinion," says Mr Jeffrey, in the 24th volume of the 'Edinburgh Review,' "a very difficult attempt to class Fielding or Smollett;—the one as an observer of the characters of human life, the other as a describer of its various eccentricities; but it is by no means so easy to dispose of Richardson, who was neither an observer of the one, nor a describer of the other, but who seemed to spin his materials entirely out of his own brain, as if there had been nothing existing in the world beyond the little shop in which he sat writing. There is an artificial reality about his works, which is nowhere to be met with. They have the romantic air of a pure fiction, with the literal minuteness of a common diary. The author had the strangest matter-of-fact imagination that ever existed, and wrote the oddest mixture of poetry and prose. He does not appear to have taken advantage of any thing in actual nature, from one end of his works to the other; and yet, throughout all his works, (voluminous as they are, and this, to be sure, is one reason why they are so,) he sets about describing every object and transaction, as if the whole had been given in on evidence by an eye-witness. This kind of high finishing from imagination is an anomaly in the history of human genius, and certainly nothing so fine was ever produced by the same accumulation of minute parts. There is not the least distraction, the least forgetfulness of the end: every circumstance is made to tell. We cannot agree that this exactness of detail produces heaviness; on the contrary, it gives an appearance of truth, and a positive interest to the story; and we listen with the same attention as we should to the particulars of a confidential communication. We at one time used to think some parts of Sir Charles Grandison rather trifling and tedious, especially the long description of Miss Harriet Byron's wedding-clothes, till we met with two young ladies who had severally copied out the whole of that very description for their own private gratification. After this, we could not blame the author.

"The effect of reading this work is like an increase of kindred; you find yourself all of a sudden introduced into the midst of a large family, with aunts and cousins to the third and fourth generation, and grand-mothers both by the father's and mother's side,—and a very odd set of people too, but people whose real existence and personal identity you can no more dispute than your own senses,—for you see and hear all that they do or say. What is still more extraordinary, all this extreme elaborateness in working out the story, seems to have cost the author nothing: for it is said, that the published works are mere abridgments. We have heard (though this, we suppose, must be a pleasant exaggeration), that Sir Charles Grandison was originally written in eight and twenty volumes.

"Pamela is the first of his productions, and the very child of his brain. Taking the general idea of the character of a modest and beautiful country girl, and of the situation in which she is placed, he makes out all the rest, even to the smallest circumstance, by the mere force of a reasoning imagination. It would seem as if a step lost would be as fatal here as in a mathematical demonstration. The development of

the character is the most simple, and comes the nearest to nature that it can do, without being the same thing. The interest of the story increases with the dawn of understanding and reflection in the heroine. Her sentiments gradually expand themselves, like opening flowers. She writes better every time, and acquires a confidence in herself, just as a girl would do, writing such letters in such circumstances; and yet it is certain that no girl would write such letters in such circumstances. What we mean is this. Richardson's nature is always the nature of sentiment and reflection, not of impulse or situation. He furnishes his characters, on every occasion, with the presence of mind of the author. He makes them act, not as they would from the impulse of the moment, but as they might upon reflection, and upon a careful review of every motive and circumstance in their situation. They regularly sit down to write letters: and if the business of life consisted in letter-writing, and was carried on by the post, (like a Spanish game at chess,) human nature would be what Richardson represents it. All actual objects and feelings are blunted and deadened by being represented through a medium which may be true to reason, but is false to nature. He confounds his own point of view with that of the immediate actors in the scene; and hence presents you with a conventional and factitious nature, instead of that which is real. Dr Johnson seems to have preferred this truth of reflection to the truth of nature, when he said that there was more knowledge of the human heart in a page of Richardson than in all Fielding. Fielding, however, saw more of the practical results, and understood the principles as well; but he had not the same power of speculating upon their possible results, and combining them in certain ideal forms of passion and imagination, which was Richardson's real excellence.

"It must be observed, however, that it is this mutual good understanding, and comparing of notes between the author and the persons he describes; his infinite circumspection, his exact process of ratiocination and calculation, which gives such an appearance of coldness and formality to most of his characters,—which makes prudes of his women, and coxcombs of his men. Every thing is too conscious in his works. Every thing is distinctly brought home to the mind of the actors in the scene, which is a fault undoubtedly: but then, it must be confessed, every thing is brought home in its full force to the mind of the reader also; and we feel the same interest in the story as if it were our own. Can any thing be more beautiful or affecting than Pamela's reproaches to her 'lumpish heart,' when she is sent away from her master's at her own request—its lightness, when she is sent for back—the joy which the conviction of the sincerity of his love diffuses in her heart, like the coming-on of spring—the artifice of the stuff gown—the meeting with Lady Davers after her marriage—and the trial scene with her husband? Who ever remained insensible to the passion of Lady Clementina, except Sir Charles Grandison himself, who was the object of it? Clarissa is, however, his masterpiece, if we except Lovelace. If she is fine in herself, she is still finer in his account of her. With that foil, her purity is dazzling indeed: and she who could triumph by her virtue, and the force of her love, over the regality of Lovelace's mind, his wit, his person, his accomplishments, and his spirit, conquers all hearts. We should suppose that never sympathy more deep or sincere was excited

than by the heroine of Richardson's romance, except by the calamities of real life. The links in this wonderful chain of interest are not more finely wrought, than their whole weight is overwhelming and irresistible. Who can forget the exquisite gradations of her long dying scene, or the closing of the coffin-lid, when Miss Howe comes to take her last leave of her friend; or the heart-breaking reflection that Clarissa makes on what was to have been her wedding-day? Well does a modern writer exclaim—

‘ Books are a real world, both pure and good,  
Round which, with tendrils strong as flesh and blood,  
Our pastime and our happiness may grow !’

‘ Richardson's wit was unlike that of any other writer;—his humour was so too. Both were the effect of intense activity of mind;—laboured, and yet completely effectual. We might refer to Lovelace's reception and description of Hickman, when he calls out Death in his ear, as the name of the person with whom Clarissa had fallen in love; and to the scene at the glove shop. What can be more magnificent than his enumeration of his companions—‘ Belton so pert and so pimply—Tourville so fair and so foppish !’ &c. In casuistry, he is quite at home; and, with a boldness greater even than his puritanical severity, has exhausted every topic on virtue and vice. There is another peculiarity in Richardson, not perhaps so uncommon, which is, his systematically preferring his most insipid characters to his finest, though both were equally his own invention, and he must be supposed to have understood something of their qualities. Thus he preferred the little, selfish, affected, insignificant Miss Byron, to the divine Clementina; and again, Sir Charles Grandison, to the nobler Lovelace. We have nothing to say in favour of Lovelace's morality; but Sir Charles is the prince of coxcombs,—whose eye was never once taken from his own person, and his own virtues; and there is nothing which excites so little sympathy as this excessive egotism.”

### William Oldys.

BORN A. D. 1696.—DIED A. D. 1761.

THE name of this literary antiquary is known to many; his history, only to a few. He was a natural son of Dr William Oldys, chancellor of Lincoln, and advocate of the admiralty, who lost his office, and risked his head, by declining to prosecute, in his official character, those seamen who had acted, under commissions from King James, against the English navy. Of the early part of his son's life very little is known, except that both his parents died while he was yet a boy, and that he was left under no kind of guardianship. In Captain Grose's ‘ Olio’ there is a brief sketch of poor Oldys,—an overdrawn portrait, probably, or caricature, as every thing else is in that satirist's scrap-book.

Grose says that he soon squandered away his small patrimony; and that he afterwards became librarian to Lord Oxford. He praises his good nature, and his scrupulous integrity as an historian. “ Nothing,”

says he, "I firmly believe, would ever have biassed him to insert any fact in his writings he did not believe, or to suppress any he did. Of this delicacy he gave an instance when he was in great distress : After his publication of the life of Sir Walter Raleigh, some booksellers, thinking his name would sell a piece they were publishing, offered him a considerable sum to father it, which he rejected with the greatest indignation." But the same authority informs us that poor Oldys fell into sad habits in the latter part of his life, and was almost continually in a state of intoxication ; that this habit was so confirmed, that even on the solemn occasion of the funeral of the Princess Caroline, at which he was present as Norroy, king-at-arms, he was in such a situation as to be scarcely able to walk, and actually reeled about with the crown and cushion, which it was his office to carry in the solemnity, to the great scandal of his brother-heralds. Oldys no doubt loved his glass—or rather his can, for it was ale he drank—too well ; but the story here set down by Grose is certainly apocryphal, for the crown, or coronet, is always carried at the funeral of a prince or princess, by Clarencieux, not by Norroy.<sup>1</sup> Oldys was indebted to the duke of Norfolk for his place in the Herald's college as Norroy, king-at-arms. Having been apprehended for debt, he spent many years in Fleet prison, but at last, on the advice of some friends, made his situation known to that nobleman, who instantly obtained his release, and placed him in the college, *per saltum*, Norroy, king-at-arms, in return for the pleasure he had received from the 'Life of Sir Walter Raleigh,' Oldys' best biographical piece.

Oldys' education was, as might have been anticipated, very imperfect ; he appears to have had little classical learning, and his style is far from being correct or polished ; but his knowledge of English books was prodigious,—the whole range of our earlier English literature had been ransacked by him with a patience and minuteness of search which nothing could escape. "At a time," says D'Israeli, "when our literary history, excepting in the solitary labours of Anthony Wood, was a forest, with neither road nor pathway, Oldys, fortunately placed in the library of the earl of Oxford, yielded up his entire days to researches concerning the books and the men of the preceding age. His labours were then valueless,—their very nature not yet ascertained ; and when he opened the treasures of our ancient lore, in 'The British Librarian,' it was closed for want of public encouragement. Our writers then struggling to create an age of genius of their own, forgot that they had had any progenitors : or while they were acquiring new modes of excellence, that they were losing others, to which their posterity or the national genius might return. (To know, and to admire only the literature and the tastes of our own age, is a species of elegant barbarism). Spenser was considered nearly as obsolete as Chaucer ; Milton was veiled by oblivion, and Shakspeare's dramas were so imperfectly known, that in looking over the play-bills of 1711, and much later, I find that whenever it chanced that they were acted, they were always announced to have been 'written by Shakspeare.' Massinger was unknown ; and Jonson, though called 'immortal' in the old play-bills, lay entombed in his two folios. The poetical era of Elizabeth, the

<sup>1</sup> Noble.

eloquent age of James the First, and the age of wit of Charles the Second, were blanks in our literary history. Bysshe compiling an *Art of Poetry*, in 1718, passed by in his collection 'Spenser and the poets of his age, because their language is now become so obsolete, that most readers of our age have no ear for them, and therefore Shakspeare himself is so rarely cited in my collection.' The best English poets were considered to be the modern; a taste which is always obstinate! All this was nothing to Oldys; his literary curiosity anticipated by half a century the fervour of the present day. This energetic direction of all his thoughts was sustained by that life of discovery, which in literary researches is starting novelties among old and unremembered things; contemplating some ancient tract as precious as a manuscript, or revelling in the volume of a poet, whose passport of fame was yet delayed in its way; or disinterring the treasures of some secluded manuscript, whence he drew a virgin extract; or raising up a sort of domestic intimacy with the eminent in arms, in politics, and in literature, in this visionary life, life itself with Oldys was insensibly gliding away—its cares almost unfelt! The life of a literary antiquary partakes of the nature of those who, having no concerns of their own, busy themselves with those of others. Oldys lived in the back-ages of England; he had crept among the dark passages of time, till, like an old gentleman-usher, he seemed to be reporting the secret history of the courts which he had lived in. He had been charmed among their masques and revels, had eyed with astonishment their cumbrous magnificence, when knights and ladies carried on their mantles and their cloth of gold ten thousand pounds' worth of ropes of pearls, and buttons of diamonds; or, descending to the gay court of the second Charles, he tattled merry tales, as in that of the first he had painfully watched, like a patriot or a loyalist, a distempered era. He had lived so constantly with these people of another age, and had so deeply interested himself in their affairs, and so loved the wit and the learning which are often bright under the rust of antiquity, that his own uncourtly style is embrowned with the tint of a century old. But it was this taste and curiosity which alone could have produced the extraordinary volume of Sir Walter Raleigh's life; a work richly inlaid with the most curious facts and the juxtaposition of the most remote knowledge; to judge by its fulness of narrative, it would seem rather to have been the work of a contemporary."<sup>2</sup>

Oldys was perpetually plodding amongst old books, pen in hand. The fruits of his researches he appears to have transferred in the most compendious manner to his note books. Some of these are still extant, and are often referred to by the abbreviated designation O. M., that is, Oldys' manuscripts. The greater part, however, of the invaluable memoranda of this most laborious literary antiquary, have disappeared or been destroyed: a loss, in the estimation of one well able to judge in such matters, deeply to be deplored by every lover of our older literature.<sup>3</sup>

In the British museum there is a copy of 'Langbaine's Lives' covered with extremely curious notes in Oldys' hand-writing. These anno-

\* 'Curiosities of Literature,' vol. vi. p. 369.

<sup>2</sup> See D'Israeli's interesting article on 'Oldys and his Manuscripts.'

tations have been frequently copied by literary gentlemen. He contributed different lives to the 'Biographia Britannica,' and 'General Dictionary;' the introduction to 'Hayward's British Muse;' the life of Nell Gwynne to Curl's 'History of the Stage;' several papers to the 'Scarborough Miscellany,' and the 'Universal Spectator;' and valuable information to a great many authors, who used him as a sort of common-place-book, or index to English literature, and often forgot to acknowledge their obligations to the indefatigable and simple-hearted collector.

## James Bradley.

BORN A. D. 1692.—DIED A. D. 1762.

THIS celebrated astronomer was born at Sherborne in Dorsetshire, in the year 1692. He was educated at North Leach and Oxford. He was admitted of Baliol college in 1710, and took the degree of M. A. in January, 1716. When of sufficient age, he took orders, and received the living of Bridstow from the bishop of Hereford. Mr Molyneux, secretary to the prince of Wales, also presented him with a small sinecure rectory in Wales.

Having a decided taste for mathematical studies, in which he was much assisted by his learned relative Dr Pound, he early began to make those astronomical observations which laid the foundation of his future discoveries, and introduced him to the favourable notice of Sir Isaac Newton, Mr Halley, and some of the first men of science of the day. On the death of Dr John Keill, he was chosen Savilian professor of astronomy at Oxford, in 1721, and immediately resigned his livings, in order to devote himself exclusively to astronomical investigations.

In 1727 he published his 'Theory of the Aberration of the Fixed Stars,'—one of the finest discoveries of the modern astronomy. Ten years afterwards he presented the scientific world with his 'Theory of the Nutation of the Earth's Axis,' by which he accounted in the most satisfactory manner, and upon the principles of the Newtonian theory of attraction, for the periodical variations in the inclination of the earth's axis to the plane of the ecliptic.

On the decease of Dr Halley, Mr Bradley was appointed astronomer-royal at Greenwich. He owed this promotion to the favour and interest of Lord Macclesfield; but it appears that his predecessor had been most anxious that he should succeed him, and had even offered to resign in his favour. As soon as this appointment became known, the university of Oxford sent him a diploma of D. D. Bradley was now indefatigable in his observations; and was materially assisted in them by a new set of instruments which were supplied to the observatory in consequence of his representations. Some time after his removal to Greenwich, the valuable living of that parish became vacant, and was offered to our astronomer; but he conscientiously declined it on the ground that his duties at the observatory would interfere too much with those of the clerical office. His fame was now spread throughout Europe, as one of the first practical astronomers of the age; and the leading



scientific bodies on the continent hastened to enrol him amongst their associates.

He pursued his favourite studies with undiminished energy till within two years of his death, which took place in 1762. Mr Bradley was a man of eminent scientific talents. Had he courted reputation, he might easily have found even a more extensive fame than he enjoyed; but his disposition was remarkably modest and retiring; and he often allowed others to assume to themselves the merit of his own original discoveries by the facility with which he communicated them. His observations from 1750 to 1762 were edited by Dr Hornsby.

## William Shenstone.

BORN A. D. 1714.—DIED A. D. 1763.

WILLIAM SHENSTONE was born on the 18th of November, 1714, at the Leasowes, in the parish of Hales-Owen. He was the son of Thomas Shenstone, a country gentleman of small estate. His mother was of the family of the Penns of Harborough, and by the death of her brother became co-heiress of his estate, the moiety of which afterwards made our poet's fortune amount to about £300 a-year. He learned to read of an old dame whose name he has recorded in one of his letters, and whom the poem of the 'Schoolmistress' has handed down to posterity. As he grew older, he went for a while to the grammar-school in Hales-Owen, and was afterwards placed with Mr Crumpton, an eminent schoolmaster at Solihull in Warwickshire, where he distinguished himself by the quickness of his progress in the Latin and Greek classics. From this school he was sent, in the year 1732, to Pembroke college, Oxford, in which society he continued his name ten years, though he took no degree. After the first four years he put on the civilian's gown, but with what design does not appear, as he showed no intention of engaging in any profession. Dr Johnson says, that "at Oxford, Shenstone employed himself upon English poetry, and in the study of mathematics, logic, natural and moral philosophy, and the other sciences usually taught in the university. He made a considerable progress in them, and seemed fond of them; of which the frequent allusions to those sciences in his writings are a sufficient proof."

In 1737 he published, at Oxford, a small collection of his poems, without his name. When he left the university, he lived for some time at Harborough, in the parish of Hagley, where he had a house, which came to him by the unexpected death of his maternal uncle. This house, which was probably of the age of Queen Elizabeth, or earlier, was situated, Mr Graves says, by the side of a large pond, shaded by venerable oaks and elms, and rendered more solemn by a colony of rooks, who seemed coeval with the worthy family who gave them protection.

In 1740 Shenstone published his 'Judgment of Hercules,' addressed to Mr Lyttleton, afterwards Lord Lyttleton, whose political interests he always supported with great warmth. About this time, and for several years after, he made occasional excursions to London, Bath, and other places of public resort. In 1742 he published his 'School-

mistress,' one of the most popular of his performances. In 1745 he had the misfortune to lose his uncle, Mr Dolman, to whose kind management of his affairs he had hitherto been principally indebted for his ease and leisure. The care of his fortune now falling upon himself, he became more resident at the Leasowes, where at first he boarded with his tenants, who were distantly related to him; but finding this mode of living inconvenient, he took the whole estate into his own hands. The manner of laying out ground in the natural style was as yet quite in its infancy when Shenstone began to display his ideas of rural elegance, and very little of what he executed now remains unaltered; but by degrees he brought the Leasowes to such perfection, that, long before he died, his little domain had not only attracted the notice, and procured him the acquaintance, of persons most distinguished for rank or genius, but was become the envy of the great, and the admiration of the skilful,—a place to be visited by travellers, and copied by designers.

Shenstone first embellished his farm with an eye to the satisfaction he should receive from its beauty; but it was not long before he grew dependent upon the friends it brought him for the principal enjoyment it afforded. "He was," as he himself observes, "pleased to find them pleased, and enjoyed its beauties by reflection." He had indeed a constant succession of visitants every summer; and as his *ferme ornée* thus brought the world home to him, when he had too much indolence to go forth in quest of it, he looked upon his scheme of improving and ornamenting the Leasowes as the luckiest he had ever pursued; more especially as it procured him interviews with persons whom it might otherwise have been his wish rather than his good fortune to see. But this pleasure was of short duration. It ceased with the summer; and, at the approach of winter, he had a regular return of nervous and hypochondriacal complaints, which brought him into such a state of heaviness and lassitude, as rendered him averse to all activity both of body and mind. These complaints, if not in a great measure produced, were certainly aggravated by desponding reflections on the narrowness of his circumstances, and the embarrassed state of his affairs. For being naturally inattentive to the rules of economy, and his taste for rural improvements leading him continually into fresh expenses, his fortune, which never exceeded £300 a-year, was gradually impaired; and, to add to his afflictions, he was unhappily involved in a law-suit with a near relation, which, though it was at length accommodated by the generous interposition of one of his noble friends, robbed him of his peace for six of the best years of his life.

Shenstone continued for some time to publish various poetical pieces, particularly 'Rural Elegance,' an ode, addressed to the duchess of Somerset; a 'Pastoral Ballad,' in four parts, which has great merit; and an 'Ode to Memory.' Our author also wrote twenty-six 'Elegies,' some of which have great excellence. Many of his pieces were first published in 'Dodsley's Collection.'

One of Shenstone's principal amusements was epistolary correspondence with several of his friends, particularly Mr Graves, Mr Jago, Mr Whistler, and Lady Luxborough, sister to Lord Bolingbroke. A volume of this lady's letters to Mr Shenstone was published in 8vo., in 1775. He died at the Leasowes, of a putrid fever, on the 11th of

February, 1763, and was buried by the side of his brother, in the churchyard of Hales-Owen, under a plain flat stone, inscribed with his name.

The character of Shenstone was very amiable. Dr Johnson, though he has not done justice to his talents or his writings, says of him, that "his life was unstained by any crime." The 'Elegy on Jessy,' which has been supposed to relate to an unfortunate criminal amour of his own, was known by his friends to have been suggested by the story of Miss Godfrey in Richardson's Pamela. Mr Dodsley says of Shenstone, that "tenderness, in every sense of the word, was his peculiar characteristic; his friends, his domestics, his poor neighbours, all daily experienced his benevolent turn of mind. Indeed this virtue in him was often carried to such excess that it sometimes bordered upon weakness: yet if he was convinced that any of those ranked among his friends had treated him ungenerously, he was not easily reconciled. He used a maxim, however, on such occasions, which is worthy of being observed and imitated: 'I never,' said he, 'will be a revengeful enemy; but I cannot, it is not my nature, to be half a friend.'"

In his person, Shenstone was above the middle stature, but largely and rather inelegantly formed; his face seemed plain, till you entered into conversation with him, and then it grew very pleasing. In his dress he was negligent, even to a fault; though when young, at the university, he was accounted a beau.

The whole of Shenstone's works have been printed in three volumes octavo. The last volume consists entirely of letters to his friends.

## Charles Churchill.

BORN A. D. 1731.—DIED A. D. 1764.

CHARLES CHURCHILL, a man who robbed himself of fair fame by misdirected talents, exerting the powers of a fertile and extraordinary genius on the fleeting politics of the day, and what is worse, in calumniating the good, and apologising for the licentious, was born in the parish of St John, Westminster, of which parish his father was curate, in the year 1731. He was educated at Westminster school, and subsequently admitted of Trinity college, Cambridge; but his residence at the university was only for a very short period. It has been stated that his deficiency in classical learning, at the age of nineteen, was so great as to cause his rejection on applying for matriculation at the sister university; but this is certainly a mistake. At matriculation there is no examination which could lead to a rejection in any case; and Churchill always exhibited fair talents while at school. The allegation may have originated in the circumstance of his standing for a fellowship at Merton college, when he wanted two or three years of the regular time for leaving school; and on which occasion, being opposed by candidates of superior age, he was not chosen.

An early and imprudent marriage was probably the cause of his abandoning the university. His conduct, however, continued irreproachable in other respects; and at the customary age he received deacon's orders from Dr Willis. In 1756 he was ordained priest by

Bishop Sherlock, and appears to have exercised with acceptance his clerical functions in the lectureship of St John's, rendered vacant by the death of his father. Under what circumstances he was first tempted to abandon the honourable path which now lay open before him is a matter of considerable obscurity; but we find him, in his 27th year, all at once starting forth as a poet and man of the town,—neglecting not only the duties of his office, but even despising and abandoning its decent and creditable appearance,—haunting the purlieus of the theatres and other places of public amusement,—and selecting his companions from among the most dissolute and abandoned of mankind. About the year 1759 he wrote a poem, entitled 'The Bard,' which was rejected by the bookseller to whom he offered it. His next effort was 'The Conclave,' a satire levelled at the dean and chapter of Westminster, which his friends succeeded in persuading him to suppress. 'The Rosciad' was more fortunate. Though refused the paltry sum of five guineas for the manuscript of this poem, he printed it at his own risk, when he had scarcely ready money enough to pay for the necessary advertisements. It was published anonymously in March, 1761, and its sale exceeded the most sanguine expectations of the author. The critical reviewers attacked it bitterly, and Churchill, having now avowed himself the author, retorted with greater severity in 'The Apology.' In these publications the merits and characters of the different performers in the Drury-lane and Covent-garden theatres were freely canvassed and discussed, with a poignancy of satire rendered doubly galling to its objects by the acuteness of the author's criticism, and the easy vigorous flow of his poetry. The success of these pieces, and the consciousness of power which he now possessed, emboldened Churchill to fling aside the last restraints of professional decency; Dr Pearce, the dean of Westminster, remonstrated; and the young curate, to put an end to the murmurings of his parishioners as well as ecclesiastical superiors, and relieve himself at once of all restrictions, resigned his lectureship, and assumed the dress and manners of a man of fashion. This step was followed by a separation from his wife, who survived him, however, and to whom he bequeathed an annuity of £60.

We next find him associating with that political charlatan John Wilkes, at whose instigation he wrote 'The Prophecy of Famine,' a bitter and scurrilous satire directed against the Scottish nation. Of this poem, Wilkes declared before its appearance in January, 1763, that he was "sure it would take, as it was at once personal, poetical, and political." It did take; its popularity exceeded that of 'The Rosciad;' and its author obtained by it the unenviable distinction of being the first political satirist of the day. The 'Epistle to Hogarth,'—'The Conference,'—'The Duellist,'—'The Author,'—'Gotham,'—'The Candidate,'—'The Farewell,'—'The Times,'—and 'Independence,' all followed each other in rapid succession. Some critics have pretended to discover indications of declining power in these pieces; the poet Cowper, a very competent judge it will be allowed, was of a different opinion,—“Churchill, the great Churchill,” he says in one of his letters, “deserved the name of a poet. I have read him twice, and some of his pieces three times over, and the last time with more pleasure than the first. 'Gotham' is a noble and beautiful poem, and a poem with which I make no doubt the author took as much pains as with any he ever

wrote. Making allowance, and Dryden perhaps in his 'Absalom and Achitophel' stands in need of the same indulgence, for an unwarrantable use of scripture, it appears to me to be a masterly performance. 'Independence' is a most animated piece, full of strength and spirit, and marked with that bold-masculine character which I think is the great peculiarity of this writer; and 'The Times,' except that the subject is disgusting to the last degree, stands equally high in my opinion."

Towards the end of October, 1764, Churchill set out on a visit to Wilkes, then a voluntary exile in France. They met at Boulogne; but Churchill, almost instantly on his arrival, was attacked by a military fever, which terminated his existence on the 4th of November, in the 34th year of his age. It is said his last words were, "What a fool have I been!" but Wilkes, who attended his dying friend, denied this. His body was brought from Boulogne to Dover, where it was interred in the churchyard of St Martin.

Churchill's poetry was by the necessity of its nature of ephemeral interest,—a necessity, however, imposed upon it by the themes which the poet chose for his muse, and not by any lack of true poetical genius. "He is indeed," says the amiable Cowper, "a careless writer for the most part; but where shall we find in any of those authors, who finish their works with the exactness of a Flemish pencil, those bold and daring strokes of fancy, those numbers so hazardously ventured upon, and so happily finished, the matter so compressed and yet so clear, and the colouring so sparingly laid on, and yet with such a beautiful effect? In short, it is not the least praise that he is never guilty of those faults as a writer, which he lays to the charge of others. A proof that he did not charge from a borrowed standard, or from rules laid down by critics, but that he was qualified to do it by his own native powers, and his great superiority of genius. For he that wrote so much, and so fast, would, through inadvertence and hurry, unavoidably have departed from rules which he might have found in books; but his own truly poetical talent was a guide which would not suffer him to err. A race-horse is graceful in his swiftest pace, and never makes an awkward motion, though he is pushed to his utmost speed: A cart-horse might perhaps be taught to play tricks in the riding-school, and might prance and curvet like his betters; but at some unlucky time would be sure to betray the baseness of his original. It is an affair of very little consequence perhaps to the well-being of mankind, but I cannot help regretting that he died so soon. Those words of Virgil, upon the immature death of Marcellus, might serve for his epitaph:

'Ostendant terris hunc tantum fata, neque ultra  
Esse sinent.'

The following lines from 'Gotham' may afford the reader some idea of Churchill's style:

"How much do they mistake, how little know  
Of kings, of kingdoms, and the pains which flow  
From royalty, who fancy that a crown,  
Because it glistens, must be lined with down.  
With outside show, and vain appearance caught,  
They look no farther, and, by Folly taught,  
Prize high the toys of thrones, but never find  
One of the many cares which lurk behind.

The gem they worship, which a crown adorns,  
 Nor once suspect that crown is lined with thorns.  
 O might Reflection Folly's place supply,  
 Would we one moment use her piercing eye,  
 Then should we learn what woe from grandeur springs,  
 And learn to pity, not to envy, kings.

The villager, born humbly and bred hard,  
 Content his wealth, and poverty his guard,  
 In action simply just, in conscience clear,  
 By guilt untainted, undisturb'd by fear,  
 His means but scanty, and his wants but few,  
 Labour his business and his pleasure too,  
 Enjoys more comforts in a single hour,  
 Than ages give the wretch condemn'd to power.

Call'd up by health he rises with the day,  
 And goes to work, as if he went to play,  
 Whistling off toils, one half of which might make  
 The stoutest ATLAS of a palace quake ;  
 'Gainst heat and cold, which makes us cowards faint,  
 Harden'd by constant use, without complaint,  
 He bears, what we should think it death to bear ;  
 Short are his meals, and homely is his fare ;  
 His thirst he slakes at some pure neighb'ring brook,  
 Nor asks for sauce, where appetite stands cook.  
 When the dews fall, and when the sun retires  
 Behind the mountains, when the village-fires,  
 Which, waken'd all at once, speak supper nigh,  
 At distance catch, and fix his longing eye,  
 Homeward he hies, and, with his manly brood  
 Of raw-boned cubs, enjoys that clean, coarse food,  
 Which, season'd with good humour, his fond bride  
 'Gainst his return is happy to provide.  
 Then, free from care, and free from thought, he creeps  
 Into his straw, and till the morning sleeps.

Not so the king—with anxious care oppress'd,  
 His bosom labours, and admits not rest.  
 A glorious wretch, he sweats beneath the weight  
 Of majesty, and gives up ease for state.  
 E'en when he smiles, which, by the fools of pride,  
 Are treasured and preserved, from side to side  
 Fly round the court ; e'en when, compell'd by form,  
 He seems most calm, his soul is in a storm !  
 CARE, like a spectre, seen by him alone,  
 With all her nest of vipers, round his throne  
 By day crawls full in view ; when Night bids sleep,  
 Sweet nurse of Nature, o'er the senses creep,  
 When Misery herself no more complains,  
 And slaves, if possible, forget their chains,  
 Though his sense weakens, though his eyes grow dim,  
 That rest, which comes to all, comes not to him.  
 E'en at that hour, CARE, tyrant CARE, forbids  
 The dew of sleep to fall upon his lids ;  
 From night to night she watches at his bed ;  
 Now, as one mop'd, sits brooding o'er his head,  
 Anon she starts, and, borne on raven's wings,  
 Croaks forth aloud—Sleep was not made for kings."

## Robert Dodsley.

BORN A. D. 1703.—DIED A. D. 1764.

ROBERT DODSLEY was born at Mansfield in Nottinghamshire in the year 1703. Although his father is said to have been master of the free-school at Mansfield, yet neither the subject of our memoir, nor any other members of the family appear to have entered life with prospects beyond servitude. One was a servant, the other a gardener, and of Robert it is traditionally recorded in his native place, that having been entered apprentice to a stocking weaver, want and hardship compelled him to run away, and become footman to a lady. It is however satisfactorily ascertained that he was once footman to Mr Charles Dartineuf, paymaster of the works, a gentleman who had made himself so illustrious for gluttony in general, and his achievements over ham-pies in particular, as to attract the muse of Pope. In the same capacity, degrading to an enlightened mind, and not easily occupied by such a person without a tinge of moral corruption, he entered the family of Miss Lowther. That lady appears to have been gifted with the singular disposition of perceiving good qualities even in a menial; she praised Dodsley's attempts at rhyme, showed them to her visitors, and encouraged him to publish a volume of fugitive pieces, by assisting in procuring a liberal subscription. This collection he modestly termed 'The Muse in Livery,' and it was accompanied by an engraved frontispiece, emblematic of the mind attempting to escape from the 'misery, folly, and ignorance' to which the body is chained by poverty,—showing that he was not ashamed of what poverty had compelled him to accept, while he earnestly sought relief, and was not servile in his heart. His next attempt, 'The Toyshop,' a theatrical satire, was written under the same circumstances, and is allowed to be a work of real genius, displaying an insight into character, which, if often possessed by the liveried portion of the community, might make the higher classes very uncomfortable. With the confidence of real talent, he was not afraid to court the most acute scrutiny to his new piece, and he accordingly wrote to Pope a letter full of modest doubts of his own claims to notice, requesting that great man to peruse the manuscript. Pope *did* peruse the manuscript, and in a letter dated February 5th, 1733, said in answer, "I was very willing to read your piece, and do freely tell you, I like it, as far as my particular judgment goes. Whether it has action enough to please the stage, I doubt; but the morality and satire ought to be relished by the reader. I will do more than you ask me, I will recommend it to Mr Rich. If he can join it to any play, with suitable representations, to make it an entertainment, I believe he will give you a benefit night: and I sincerely wish it may be turned any way to your advantage, or that I could show you my friendship in any instance." The return for these two works must have been watched by Dodsley with a still more anxious eye than authors in general direct towards the public opinion in their works,—the profits were, if sufficient, to be used for the purpose of relieving him from servitude; and being found ample enough, he was enabled to fulfil his intention.

His shop in Pall Mall was opened in 1735, and the conversational genius of its owner, added to the friendly attention of Pope, soon filled it with illustrious visitors. Soon after being thus established, he published the well-known farce of 'The King and the Miller of Mansfield,' which was performed in 1737, and did not fail in attracting the attention naturally to be expected from the racy wit of the composition, and the real English humour of the incidents. In 1738 he produced 'Sir John Cockle,' intended as a sequel to the previous piece, but for the continuation he did not receive the same praise as for the first attempt, one exhibition on a field so narrow being probably sufficient to satisfy the public taste. In 1741 he brought on the stage 'The Blind Beggar of Bethnal-green,' a piece which met with no greater success than its precursor. Dodsley has surprised literary men, by the earliness of his literary speculations, their success, and the respectability of the authors who resorted to him from the commencement. In 1737 he published Pope's 'Second epistle of the second book of Horace;' in the following month he procured the copy-right and sole property of that author's 'Letters,' so singularly forced upon the world, and afterwards of vols. 5 and 6 of his works, and several detached pieces. Much about the same period, he ushered into the world, the works of Young and Akenside, and in the following year entered into speculations with long-established booksellers, for the works of authors of reputation. From Dodsley's establishment issued the earliest complete work of Johnson's 'London,' purchased by the rising publisher on a knowledge of its merits, after having been subjected to his notice through the instrumentality of Cave. It was disposed of by Johnson, then in great poverty, as the work of a friend "under very disadvantageous circumstances of fortune," and Dodsley thinking it "a creditable thing to be concerned in," paid for it ten guineas.

On the third of January, 1741, Dodsley commenced a periodical, entitled 'The Public Register, or Weekly Magazine;' a species of Magazine, which, interfering to a certain extent with the 'Gentleman's Magazine,' caused for some time a slight jealousy between the respective publishers. After the twenty-fourth number, it ceased, on the avowed ground of the publisher's "additional expense in stamping it, and the ungenerous usage he met with from one of the proprietors of a *certain monthly pamphlet*, who prevailed with most of the common newspapers not to advertise it." A small poetical pantomime which excited little interest, called 'Rex et Pontifex,' dropped from his pen in 1745. In the year following, he was a shareholder in another periodical, 'The Museum, or the Literary and Historical Register;' and in 1748 he published 'The Preceptor,' a periodical fed by such hands as Johnson, Walpole, and Akenside. If Dodsley was not the person who projected Johnson's English Dictionary, he was at least the first publisher to listen to the plan, and he paid much practical attention to its progress: before the vast undertaking was completed, it was the fate of Dodsley, to be, like the author, deprived of a wife "on whom his heart was fixed, and to whom every wish and desire turned." In 1748 Dodsley collected some of his pieces into a volume with the humble title, 'Trifles;' and after the treaty which immediately ensued, he produced for the re the 'Triumph of Peace,' a masque.

1750 he published anonymously the famous 'Economy of Human



Life.' The deep oriental tinge of imagination, the solemn gravity of reflection, and the lofty tone of feeling and morality which pervaded this remarkable work, could not fail to attract the public eye. Those who speculated on the subject gave the authorship to the earl of Chesterfield, on the theory, one must suppose, that that author had written all his previous works in a totally opposite vein, for the purpose of more effectually concealing his authorship of this outpouring of high feeling. Chesterfield had a friendship for Dodsley; and knowing the value of the sanction of his name, did not contradict the report. The 'Economy of Human Life' has been republished in many varieties of shape; but perhaps the best evidence of its reputation is to be found in the host of ghastly imitations which followed at its heels. He had intended, in 1754, to have published a poem, to be comprised in three books, treating of agriculture, commerce, and arts. The first of these he attempted as an experiment under the name of 'Public Virtue;' but the poem was neither popular, nor admired by literary men. Johnson remarked, "It was fine blank, (meaning to express his usual contempt for blank verse;) however, this miserable poem did not sell, and my poor friend, Doddy, said, Public Virtue was not a thing to interest the age."<sup>1</sup> It is needless to say that the series was stopped. His next project was 'The World,' of which he chose the appellation, and wrote one number, (32.) The year 1758 appears to have been one of considerable import to Dodsley. At that time we find him making a tour through Scotland with Mr George Spence, one of his most early and intimate friends, in the progress towards which they both visited the poet Shenstone. Within the same year appeared his 'Melpomene, or the Regions of Terror and Pity,' an ode; and the most striking, if not the best, of his theatrical productions,—the tragedy of 'Cleone.' It is said that this piece suffered at its first appearance from the jealousy of Garrick, who could not brook the existence of a play in which there was not a character adapted to his talents. Within the same year, the 'Annual Register' made its appearance. Few bibliopolical speculations have proved so profitable as this important work, nor have the public had reason to complain of their share of its advantages. It was, in short, eminently useful, and eminently successful; and its utility and varied excellences being known to every one who reads, require no explanation. In 1760 Dodsley published another profitable work,—'Select Fables of Esop and other Fabulists.' Soon after this period he retired from the active part of his business on a considerable fortune, amassed by the most gratifying means through which man can gather wealth; and his brother, James, a person of inferior talents, previously his partner, succeeded him.

During his latter days he suffered much from the gout, of which disease he died on a visit to his friend, Mr Spence, at Durham, on the 25th day of September, 1764, in the sixty-first year of his age. He edited and published many works to which our limits have not permitted a reference, among which we ought not to forget his celebrated collection of 'Old Plays.'

<sup>1</sup> Boswell, vol. iv. p. 18.

## William Hogarth.

BORN A. D. 1697.—DIED A. D. 1764.

WILLIAM HOGARTH, one of the most remarkable men, for the originality of his genius and the peculiarity of its operation, whom it falls to the lot of these pages to commemorate, was born in London, on the 10th day of November, 1697. His grandfather was a respectable yeoman in Westmoreland, who had three sons, of whom the youngest, Richard, father to the painter, received a tolerable classical education at St Bees, where he afterwards superintended a school. He followed the same occupation in Ship-court in the Old Bailey,—was occasionally employed in correcting the press,—and left no contemptible memorial of his classical attainments, in a Latin dictionary for the use of schools. He married in London, and the painter and his two sisters, Mary and Anne, are believed to have been his only progeny. It is worthy of notice, as connected with the peculiar genius of the painter, that his junior uncle, who lived in the neighbourhood of Kendal, had acquired the fame of a hardy satirist and keen observer, not of human follies in general, but of acts which outraged the good old customs of the place, “over the whole parish, nay, to the very bounds of the Westmoreland dialect;” and from the amusing description which has been handed down, of ‘Ald Hogart,’ his boisterous jests and quibbling songs, it may easily be imagined, that had a desire for knowledge prompted him to acquire information, or accident thrown him into less rustic society, the world might have gained another Persius or Butler.

William Hogarth’s father was not possessed of sufficient wealth to give his son the education either of a scholar or an artist. “My father’s pen,” he says, “like that of many other authors, did not enable him to do more than put me in the way of shifting for myself.” He thus characteristically continues the account of his younger days: “As I had naturally a good eye, and a fondness for drawing, shows of all sorts gave me uncommon pleasure when an infant; and mimicry, common to all children, was remarkable in me. An early access to a neighbouring painter drew my attention from play, and I was, at every possible opportunity, employed in making drawings. I picked up an acquaintance of the same turn, and soon learned to draw the alphabet with great correctness. My exercises, when at school, were more remarkable for the ornaments which adorned them, than for the exercise itself. In the former, I soon found that blockheads, with better memories, could much surpass me; but for the latter I was particularly distinguished.” We have indeed few so illustrious or interesting spectacles of the most refined acuteness of the human intellect directing its whole power in one direction, and neglecting others, as may be found in a comparison of Hogarth’s plastic with his literary fame. The progress which he made at school may be simply illustrated by the fact, that he could never make himself master of the science of spelling. The scrolls and mottos of his prints are full of stable-boy blunders; he dared not submit any literary composition to the public without the revision of a friend; and his adversary Wilkes, speaking of the analysis of beauty,

was enabled to say, "He somewhere mentions his being indebted to a friend for a third part of the *wording*; that is his phrase. We all titter the instant he takes up a *pen*, but we tremble when we see the *pencil* in his hand." He was enabled to give the first narrow vent to his depictive powers, by being apprenticed, early in life, as an engraver on plate to a respectable goldsmith, of the name of Ellis Gamble, at "the Golden Angel in Cranbourn-street, Leicester-fields." We have evidence of his knowledge of taste, and of the rules of drawing, in specimens earlier than those in which he displayed his discernment of character. Two cards for the shop of his employer, and one for an individual in the same profession, have been religiously preserved and re-engraved. These, when we hold in view the restricted nature of the work, exhibit a fund of varied and apt illustration, and of correct drawing. We find in them all that can be applied to use, of the theory of the waving line of beauty which he afterwards so elaborately illustrated, while in the lines and attitudes he has shown a disposition to imitate the manner of one of the best of early French engravers, Callot. If such was his intention, he quickly improved upon his model. Some plates, which he soon afterwards executed for a work on Roman military punishments, are evidently after Callot's method of grouping, while the figures have more variety and proportion; but, in a small plate executed for his own card as an engraver, which bears date, April, 1720, the beauty of the arrangement in the tiny parts, and the easy flow of the drapery and attitudes of two symbolical figures, so far excel Callot in purity of taste, that the resemblance ceases. Nichols tells us that an accident first drew his latent powers into their natural channel. He had taken an excursion with some companions to Highgate, one hot sunny evening, and entered a public house, where some people were quarrelling. One of the disputants lacerated the face of another with a blow from a quart-pot. The bloody face, the agonized attitude of the sufferer, and perhaps the emotions depicted on the features of the perpetrator and his companions, struck the comic feeling of the artist so forcibly, that he snatched out his pencil, and committed the incident to paper on the spot, with caricature portraits of all the persons engaged. But perhaps the earliest specimen of his attempts at character which has survived, is a rude outline sketch of one of the scenes in 'Pope's Rape of the Lock,' said to have been an impression from a scratching on the lid of a gold snuff-box. This production is so meagre, and so negligently executed, that it is only on being informed of the name of the artist, that, with the assistance perhaps of a slight tinge of fancy, we are enabled to detect his characteristics; yet so much do collectors prefer the possession of what another cannot procure to the best works of art, that while the paintings of the 'Harlot's Progress' sold at fourteen guineas each, and from one to two guineas were frequently the prices of the best impressions of his best plates, the single impression from the snuff-box was purchased at Mr Gulstone's sale, in 1786, for £33. We bestow disproportionate space on the description of the early productions of the great artist, because they are comparatively unknown, and his more mature works are so generally circulated, so well appreciated, and so voluminously illustrated, that an equal attention to them would be but a faint addition to the abundance of knowledge on the subject, which most general readers possess. He gladly left his situa-

tion with the goldsmith, and established himself as an engraver, in which capacity his efforts were for a considerable period limited to engraving shop cards, coats of arms, and illustrations of obscure books. He appears, during this period, to have lived an obscure and laborious life: "by engraving," he says, "until I was near thirty, I could do little more than maintain myself; but, even then, I was a punctual pay-master."

About the year 1728 he appears to have aimed at the higher branch of the art, by commencing to paint portraits, and small family conversation pieces. He was no flatterer of the human countenance, yet, in his obscurer years, several, who probably grudged the prices of fashionable artists, saw inducement in his talent, when added to economy, sufficient to make them become his employers. In the capacity of a portrait painter, an anecdote of the artist has been preserved, exceedingly characteristic of his desire to sport with human follies and frailties. A peer, whose ugliness exceeded that generally allotted to humanity, sat to Hogarth for his picture. The painter could not resist the happy opportunity of depicting a hideous likeness of an hereditary legislator. The peer, actuated by feelings somewhat different from those of the artist, showed considerable reluctance to receive the portrait and pay the price. Hogarth sent him the following note:—"Mr Hogarth's dutiful respects to Lord —; finding that he does not mean to have the picture which was drawn for him, is informed again of Mr H.'s necessity for the money; if, therefore, his lordship does not send for it in three days, it will be disposed of, with the addition of a tail, and some other little appendages, to Mr Hare, the famous wild-beast man; Mr H. having given that gentleman a conditional promise of it for an exhibition-picture, on his lordship's refusal." The picture was sent for and burnt. While on the subject of portrait-painting, we may here make a remark on a matter of much dispute, regarding the genius of Hogarth. It has been asserted by some, that he never depicted a female face of mental beauty; while others have doubted whether he could have guided his pencil to the delineation of a really pleasing female face. In his pictures of life and character the point admits of much dispute: the features of the bride, in the first picture of 'Marriage a la Mode,' have certainly all that could be wished of the air of a high-bred beauty; and, in an illustration of the 'Beggar's Opera,' he has given us the picture of an exceedingly pleasing and pretty girl. In these instances the ideal perfection of classic sculpture was neither requisite nor natural; but it must be allowed, that, in his female forms in general, deformity is more frequent and more strikingly interesting than beauty. There is, however, one female head and bust, which, in form of feature, in the reflection of a soul within, nay, even in the attitude and the adjustment of the head-dress, appears to have approached all that can be imagined of the most exquisite female beauty. It is unknown whether this is a portrait or a study; most probably the former. The features have all the marks of individuality; had these been the marks of low passion, of folly, or of meanness, their peculiarities would have been no reason for supposing the portrait not to have been a design by Hogarth, but they are the marks of individual graces and beauties. Hogarth's servant, Ben Ives, was aware of the excellence of this picture: showing it to Garrick, he exclaimed, "There, sir! there's a picture!

They say my master can't paint a portrait, and does not know what true beauty is: there is a head that, I think, must confound and put all his enemies to the blush." Nor in the male portraits which have survived do we find much propensity to caricature, or a wilful blindness to outward dignity of form or expression denoting good or high mental principle. His portraits, he says, "by some were said to be *nature itself*; by others most *execrable*;" and he refers to the full length portrait of Captain Thomas Coram, painted for the Foundling Hospital, as a proof of the injustice of his traducers. This represents the living figure of an easy, excellent old gentleman, with a hale body, an excellent heart, and a strong head. The portraits of Archbishop Herring, and of Gibbs the architect, may be adduced as specimens of the mental dignity which he could produce when he willed it.

The earliest of his works now known, in which he attempted a complicated arrangement of figures, is in the Wanstead Assembly, afterwards used as an illustration to the 'Analysis of Beauty.' The period of life at which he painted this picture is unknown. It is impossible to mistake in it the master-hand, although it is comparatively uninteresting: little is represented but a complication of vulgarity and clumsiness, of awkwardness varied and contrasted almost without end. There is more ingenuity in displaying grotesqueness than genius, and we look in vain for the moral satire of 'Marriage a la Mode,' or the revolting horrors of 'Gin-lane.'

In 1730 Hogarth married Jane, the only daughter of Sir James Thornhill, sergeant painter, and history painter to King George I.—a lady, who, if we may judge from a portrait by her husband, must have possessed considerable attractions. The young artist, low born, little distinguished in his profession, illiterate, and totally destitute of any courtly ingredients in his manners, it is very natural to suppose would not have appeared a fitting son-in-law in the eyes of Sir James, and the marriage was clandestine. About a year after his marriage he had just finished the pictures of the 'Harlot's Progress,' and was advised by Lady Thornhill to have some of the scenes placed before Sir James. Mrs Hogarth placed the pictures in his dining-room, and when she satisfied the inquiries of the astonished sergeant painter as to the hand whence they had sprung, he remarked, "Very well; the man who can furnish representations like these, can also maintain a wife without a portion." In this inimitable series of pictures, and in the 'Rake's Progress,' which speedily followed, it had been the intention of the artist to present the world with painted dramas,—with series of pictures in which the mind saw so much connection, that it could dovetail the whole into narratives, more living than the pen could be made to depict. We need not say how well he accomplished his object. From the moment when they appeared before the world to the present day, the most critical eyes have been employed in examining, and the most elegant pens in analyzing, the endless varieties of these complicated productions of the human intellect; nor does it seem they could ever cease, like the nature from which they are derived, to pour forth new matter for the critic or the moralist. The conventional attributes of these plates may become strange and unnatural with the improvements or degeneracies of time,

<sup>1</sup> Nichols says she was only eighteen at the period of her marriage; Dallaway, in a note to Walpole's Anecdotes, says she was twenty-one. Vol. iv. p. 145.

and indeed many of them are already antiquated. The swords, the ponderous wigs, the extended petticoats, nay, the villanous assembly congregated in the chambers of the spendthrift, in the second plate, and the roaring debauchery exhibited in the third of the 'Rake's Progress,' are things unseen and almost forgotten in the nineteenth century; but the swaggering, consequential brutality of the jailor, the silly strut of the fop, the maudlin leer of the exhausted and decrepit drunkard, the furious contortions of the ruined gambler, and the ghastly horrors and imbecilities of the madhouse, will tell truths of the human heart to ages yet unborn. Their effect cannot change so long as mankind remain the same; and had they been painted in ancient Babylon or Rome, with the corresponding costume and manners, they could not have lost many of their attractions for the present age. The remarks of Mr Gilpen on one of these pictures—the 'Rake's Levee'—affords a good comment on the method of Hogarth's genius, and the sacrifices he made to give it freedom:—"The *composition* seems to be entirely subservient to the expression. It appears as if Hogarth had sketched, in his memorandum book, all the characters which he has here introduced; but was at a loss how to group them; and chose rather to introduce them in detached figures, as he had sketched them, than to lose any part of the expression by combining them. The *light* is very ill distributed; it is spread indiscriminately over the print, and destroys the *whole*. We have no instance of grace in any of the figures." These remarks, considered in the light of objections, spring from the technical feelings of the amateur, and we require to be told of their existence, and to search for them in the pictures, before we are aware of their existence. In the pictures of the 'Levee,' the 'Gambling House,' or the 'Asylum,' we feel scarcely more inclined to search for grouping and light, than if the actual scenes were presented before us. The artist had narrative and the display of character in view, and he has not altered the position of a limb, or darkened a feature, where, for the sake of effect, he might have deviated, in the most minute proportion, from the truth of the character. His earlier and less distinguished works show him to have been an excellent master of grouping and light. When we add to the pictures we have just been alluding to, the 'Marriage a la Mode,' the 'Four Stages of Cruelty,' 'Beer Street,' and 'Gin Lane,' and the 'Idle and Industrious Apprentice'—we have before us a set of sermons against vice, and satires on folly, which the world scarcely elsewhere equals. To weak minds the view of vice is generally either shocking or depraving, while it is well it should be known that it may be avoided: the artist seems to have glutted in its horrors, that he might represent it almost living, for the avoidance of others. "Hogarth," says Horace Walpole, "resembles Butler, but his subjects are more universal, and, amidst all his pleasantry, he observes the true end of comedy—reformation; there is always a moral in his pictures. Sometimes he rose to tragedy, not in the catastrophe of kings and heroes, but in marking how vice conducts, insensibly and incidentally, to misery and shame. He warns against encouraging cruelty and idleness in young minds, and discerns how the different vices of the great and the vulgar lead, by various paths, to the same unhappiness. The fine lady in 'Marriage a la Mode,' and Tom Nero, in the 'Four Stages of Cruelty,' terminate their story in blood—she occasions the murder of her husband, he assassinates his mistress."

Soon after his marriage, Hogarth lived at South Lambeth, and contributed to the ornaments of the gardens of Vauxhall, for which he painted the well-known 'Four parts of the Day.' The prints of his 'Harlot's Progress' introduced him speedily to the highest notice in the land, and the events of the series were made popular by dramatic performances. It is singular that a man whose eyes were so universally open to the follies of his race, should have indulged in one of the most despicable foibles of mankind—national prejudice. But he never attempted by reflection to curb the natural rough outlines of his temper; in society he was frequently rude, vulgar, overbearing, and disagreeable; and an incident which happened at this period of his life, affords a specimen of how luxuriantly he allowed his prejudices and narrow views to grow. In 1747, he made an excursion to France, for the purpose of seeing and ridiculing the inferiority of that country to his native land. Whenever he met an object which in the slightest degree attracted his tenacious attention to the ludicrous, he invariably visited it with a torrent of English abuse. Towards the termination of his journey he sat down and commenced the sketching of the gate of Calais, from which he prepared the curious caricature termed 'Roast Beef at the Gate of Calais.' His labours were interrupted by a sentinel, who seized him as a person most audaciously acting as a spy. On being brought before the commandant, he was courteously informed, that, had not the articles of the peace of Aix la Chapelle been concluded, he should have been strung up to the rampart. An examination of his sketch-book showing his designs not to be of a political nature, he was permitted to depart in the company of two guards, who attended him on board, and did not leave him until he had proceeded three miles from the shore, when they spun him round on the deck, and left him to meditate on the inferiority of the French nation. He could never patiently permit the circumstances of his journey to be alluded to in his presence.

In the year 1745, Hogarth, conceiving that his prints were sufficiently numerous for the purpose, formed them into a handsome volume, and engraved his own portrait for the frontispiece. On the corner of this celebrated portrait was a palette with a waving line, inscribed 'The Line of Beauty.' The meaning of the artist in this representation created considerable discussion, and the disputes which originated on the matter prompted him to a literary explanation of his favourite curve. In 1753 he published the well-known 'Analysis of Beauty, written with a view of fixing the fluctuating ideas of Taste.' Few men adopt a metaphysical theory without arguments in its support, founded on observation of nature; hence, the acuteness of Hogarth enabled him, while supporting his very limited theory, to make many original observations on the origin of taste, which, with the general fate of such discoveries, have found their way into the works of more enlarged and compact theorists, while their original source is neglected. His theories are laid down with uncompromising boldness; for his success in one branch of genius had not taught him humility in others. There were few things, indeed, which entered his imagination as being worthy of achievement, for which he did not conceive himself capable; and the surest way to gain his favour, was by flattering him on the performances which the world considered he had ill-achieved. "A word in

favour of Sigismunda," says Nichols with the simplicity of a zealous virtuoso, "might have commanded a proof print, or forced an original sketch out of our artist's hands. The furnisher of this remark owes one of his scarcest performances to the success of a compliment which might have stuck even in Sir Godfrey Kneller's throat." Some one had compared a performer to Handel, and Hogarth sneered at the idea; "but, Mr Hogarth," continued the retailer of the opinion, "he said you were equal to Vandyke." "Ay, there he was right enough," replied the artist, "and, by God, so I know that I am; give me my own subject and time." In pursuance of a similar boast, he painted 'A Conversation Scene, after the manner of Vandyke,' of which all that need be said is, that he has assembled an unpleasing group of ill-dressed and disagreeable looking people. His 'Pool of Bethesda,' and his 'Illustrations of Milton,' with their hideous angels and grotesque fiends, remain curious illustrations of his appreciation of his own powers; but his performance most unfortunate for his own peace of mind, was the renowned picture of Sigismunda, designed to rival the representation by Corregio of the same subject, purchased at Sir Luke Schaub's sale, in 1758, for above £400. The person for whom the picture was painted refused to receive it; and Hogarth, burning with wrath, resolved it should never be sold under £500. It is questionable whether the rolling vituperations of Walpole are a true estimate of the merits of this performance; but it is certainly a most unpleasing picture, and a circumstance, afterwards removed by the artist, must have added to its offensiveness when the critique was written—the fingers were bloody. The fate of this production elicited from the artist some verses, of no peculiar merit; but it was finally a subject of deep harassment. When, in 1762, he published his print of 'The Times,' Wilkes answered the satire in the North Britain. Hogarth caricatured Wilkes in return; Churchill came forward to the assistance of the writer, and Hogarth stamped him with the die of ridicule, in the picture of a 'Russian' Bear with a pot of Porter.' The chief handle of attack to the penmen was the picture of Sigismunda. Mrs Hogarth displayed some animosity towards those who had underrated the picture, and it had been whispered that she was herself the model from which it had been taken. If this was the case, the feelings of the artist and his consort cannot have been allayed by the remark of Wilkes, that, "If the figure had a resemblance of anything ever on earth, or had the least pretence to meaning or expression, it was what he had seen, or perhaps made, in real life, his own wife in an agony of passion; but of what passion no connoisseur could guess." The feelings of irritation and wounded pride occasioned by this controversy, embittered the latter days of the great artist's life. In 1762 he complained of an inward pain, which speedily increased to an incurable disorder, during which, in expectation of the speedy approach of death, he employed himself in diligently retouching his plates. The last performance of his unrivalled pencil possesses a curious and melancholy interest. "My next undertaking," he observed to a party of persons who were enjoying themselves convivially in his presence, "shall be the end of all things." "If that is the case," observed a friend, "your business will be finished; for there will be an end of the painter." "There will be so," answered the artist; "and therefore, the sooner my work is done the better." He fell busily to



work, and laboured with an energy which showed a fear that he might not live to complete his plan. He gathered together in this allegory, with his usual ingenuity, almost all the figures which could aptly be used as types of ruin: "a broken bottle—an old broom worn to the stump—the butt-end of an old musket—a cracked bell—bow unstrung—a crown tumbled in pieces—towers in ruin—the sign-post of a tavern, called the World's-end, tumbling—the moon in her wane—the map of the globe burning—a gibbet falling, the body gone, and the chain which held it dropping down—Phœbus and his horse dead in the clouds—a vessel wrecked—Time, with his hour-glass and scythe broken, a tobacco-pipe in his mouth, the last whiff of smoke going out—a play-book opened, with *exeunt omnes* stamped in the corner—an empty purse—and a statute of bankruptcy taken out against Nature." When he had looked over the dreary assemblage, he observed one omission; "Nothing remains but this," he said, taking the pencil and hastily dashing off the likeness of a broken palette; "finis!" he exclaimed, "the deed is done—all is over!" On the 25th of October, 1764, about a month after the above incident, he was conveyed from Chiswick to Leicester fields, in a state of cheerfulness, but great debility. He had received a letter from his friend Dr Franklin, to which he had drawn up a rough draught of an answer; but on retiring to bed, his disorder attacked him with unusual violence, and in two hours he expired. Among his friends and relatives he left behind him a very high character for the practice of the domestic virtues.

### Lady Mary Wortley Montague.

BORN A. D. 1690.—DIED A. D. 1762.

THIS highly-gifted lady was the eldest daughter of Evelyn, earl of Kingston. She was born at Thoresby, in Nottinghamshire, about the year 1690. Her education was of a more masculine kind than usually fell to the lot of young ladies of her time. She was placed under the same preceptors as her brother, Viscount Newark, and made distinguished proficiency under their tuition in the classical and modern languages. Among her earliest compositions was a translation of the *Enchiridion* of Epictetus, which is noticed by Bishop Burnet in terms of high praise.

In 1712 she married Edward Wortley Montague, eldest son of the Honourable Sidney Montague. This union was not an auspicious one. The husband was a man of inferior parts, and of a cold suspicious temper; Lady Mary was quick, lively, and penetrating,—highly susceptible in her attachments, and at times perhaps a little indiscreet in her manner of evincing them. Mr Wortley had a seat in parliament, and, upon the accession of George I., became a confidential supporter of the administration. In 1716 he was appointed ambassador to the Porte, and set out, in the month of August, for Constantinople. His wife accompanied him; and, during her stay in Turkey, wrote those admirable and animated letters by which she is so generally known, and which contributed more than all preceding publications in the English language to familiarize the public with Turkish manners. The correspond-

ents to whom chiefly at this period she communicated the result of her foreign observations were her sister the countess of Mar, Fenton's 'Seraphic Rich,' Mrs Thistlethwaite, and Pope. These letters were afterwards collected and transcribed by herself with a view to publication. They were first surreptitiously printed by Beckett, in three vols. 12mo., in 1763. Lady Mary's descriptions are lively and faithful; her remarks exceedingly acute; and the whole style of her letters fascinating in the highest degree. Her husband also mingled the pursuits of literature with his diplomatical employments, and collected some valuable manuscripts while in the east. In 1718 Mr Wortley was recalled. Lady Mary returned with him to England, and, in order to enjoy the society of Pope, fixed her residence at Twickenham.

Pope had corresponded closely with Lady Mary during her residence abroad, and her ladyship's letters to the poet are written in a strain of high friendship and respect. Their friendship, however, it would appear, could not stand the test of familiarity. At first on Lady Mary's settlement at Twickenham, Pope was in ecstasies, and wrote and said a thousand foolish things to her and about her. He got her ladyship to sit for her portrait to Sir Godfrey Kneller. During the progress of the picture he thus writes Lady Mary:—"Indeed, dear Madam, it is not possible to tell you whether you give me, every day I see you, more pleasure, or more respect; and, upon my word, whenever I see you, after a day or two's absence, it is in just such view as that you yesterday had of your own writings. I find you still better than I could imagine, and think I was partial before to your prejudice. The picture dwells really at my heart, and I have made a perfect passion of preferring your present face to your past. I know, and thoroughly esteem yourself of this year; I know no more of Lady Mary Pierrepont, than to admire at what I have heard of her, or be pleased with some fragments of hers, as I am with Sappho's. But now, I cannot say what I would say of you now. Only still give me cause to say you are good to me, and allow me as much of your person as Sir Godfrey can help me to. Upon conferring with him yesterday, I find he thinks it absolutely necessary to draw your face first, which, he says, can never be set right on your figure, if the drapery and posture be finished before. To give you as little trouble as possible, he purposes to draw your face with crayons, and finish it up, at your own house, in a morning, from whence he will transfer it to canvass, so that you need not go to sit at his house. This, I must observe, is a manner they seldom draw any but crowned heads; and I observe it with a secret pride and pleasure. Be so kind as to tell me if you care he should do this to-morrow at twelve. Though if I am but assured from you of the thing, let the manner and time be what you best like; let every decorum you please be observed. I should be very unworthy of any favour from your hands, if I desired any at the expense of your quiet and convenience in any degree." When the artist had completed his task, Pope was enraptured, and presented Lady Mary with the following couplets:—

"The playful smiles around the dimpled mouth,  
That happy air of majesty and truth,  
So would I draw, (but oh! 'tis vain to try;  
My narrow genius does the power deny.)

The equal lustre of the heavenly mind,  
 Where every grace with every virtue's join'd,  
 Learning not vain, and wisdom not severe,  
 With greatness easy, and with wit sincere,  
 With just description show the soul divine,  
 And the whole princess in my work should shine."

Mr Dallaway's account of the origin and progress of the misunderstanding betwixt the two friends, fails, we think, to account entirely for the rupture. "Upon the accession of George II. the countess of Bristol and her son Lord Hervey possessed great influence in the new court, and were the favourites of Queen Caroline. The political sentiments of Lady Mary were conformable with those of Sir Robert Walpole and his administration, and she was much connected with the courtiers of that day. With Lord Hervey she seems to have formed an alliance of genius, as well as politics; and as both were poets, they were in habits of literary communication, and sometimes assisted each other in joint compositions. Pope, who had been the original promoter of Lady Mary's residence at Twickenham, now became jealous of her partiality to the Herveys, and insinuated many severe criticisms against verses which were admired at court. He had now mixed politics with his poetry, and was so firmly attached to Bolingbroke and Swift, that he held the whigs in a detestation which he was careless to conceal. There was still a common friend, Lady Oxford, at whose house they frequently met, but rarely without opening their batteries of repartee, and that with so many personalities, that Pope's petulance, 'willing to wound, and yet afraid to strike,' sought to discharge itself by abrupt departure from the company. Seeming reconciliation soon followed out of respect to Lord and Lady Oxford; but the wound was rankling at his heart. Lady Mary had long since omitted to consult him upon any new poetical production; and when he had been formerly very free in proposing emendations, would say, 'Come, no touching Pope; for what is good the world will give to you, and leave the bad for me!' and she was well aware that he disingenuously encouraged that idea. She had found, too, another inconvenience in these communications, which was, that many poems were indiscriminately imputed to Pope, his confederates, and to herself. Swift, on one of these occasions, sent her 'the Capon's Tale,' published in Sheridan's edition of his works, and concluding there,—

'Such Lady Mary are your tricks,  
 But since you hatch, pray own your chicks.'

"In the original copy now before the editor, four more very abominable lines are added. The apparent cause of that dissension, which was aggravated into implacability, were satires in the form of a pastoral, entitled, 'Town Eclogues.' They were certainly some of the earliest of Lady Mary's poetical essays, and it is proved by the following extract from one of Pope's letters, addressed to her at Constantinople, that they had been written previously to the year 1717, when she left England: 'The letters of gold, and the curious illuminating of the sonnets, was not a greater token of respect than what I have paid to your eclogues; they lie inclosed in a monument of Turkey, written in my fairest hand; the gilded leaves are opened with no less veneration

than the pages of the Sibyls; like them, locked up and concealed from all profane eyes, none but my own have beheld these sacred remains of yourself, and I should think it as great a wickedness to divulge them, as to scatter abroad the ashes of my ancestors.'

"After her return, the veil of secrecy was removed, and they were communicated to a favoured few. Both Pope and Gay suggested many additions and alterations, which were certainly not adopted by Lady Mary; and as copies, including their corrections, have been found among the papers of these poets, their editors have attributed three out of six to them. 'The Basset Table,' and the 'Drawing-Room,' are given to Pope, and the 'Toilet,' to Gay. It is, therefore, singular, that Pope should himself be subject to his own satire on Philips, and

'The Bard whom pilfered pastorals renown.'

"The Town Eclogues contained that kind of general satire which rendered them universally popular, and as the sagacity of every reader was prompted to discover whom he thought the persons characterized, the manuscript was multiplied by many hands, and was in a short time committed to the press by the all-grasping Curl. Characters thus appropriated soon became well-known; Pope and his friends were willing to share the poetical fame, but averse from encountering any of the resentment which satire upon powerful courtiers necessarily excites. He endeavoured to negotiate with the piratical bookseller, and used threats, which ended in no less than Curl's publishing the whole in his name. Irritated by Pope's ceaseless petulance, and disgusted by his subterfuge, Lady Mary now retired totally from his society, and certainly did not abstain from sarcastic observations, which were always repeated to him. One told him of an epigram,—

'Sure Pope and Orpheus were alike inspired,  
The blocks and beasts flocked round them and admired;'

and another, how Lady Mary had observed, that 'some called Pope, little Nightingale—all sound, and no sense.'" We think Mr Dallaway has borne rather hard on Pope in this explanation; and the reader will do well to receive it as the statement of the lady's professed apologist.

Lady Mary remained in England till the year 1739, when finding her health declining she formed the resolution of returning to the continent. She at first settled herself on the shores of Lake Isco, in the Venetian territory, where she led a truly rural life, superintending her garden and orchard, and entering into the domestic economy of her establishment with great zeal: at the same time exchanging visits with the neighbouring nobility, and keeping up her acquaintance with English literature through the medium of her daughter, the countess of Bute, who supplied her with the new publications. Under date, Louvere, 19th June 1751, we find her thus writing to the countess:—"The people, I see here, make no more impression on my mind than the figures in the tapestry; while they are directly before my eyes, I know one is clothed in blue, and another in red; but out of sight, they are so entirely out of memory, I hardly remember whether they are tall or short. I sometimes call myself to account for this insensibility, which has something of ingratitude in it, this little town thinking themselves highly honoured and obliged by my residence: they intended me an

extraordinary mark of it, having determined to set up my statue in the most conspicuous place: the marble was bespoke, and the sculptor bargained with, before I knew any thing of the matter; and it would have been erected without my knowledge, if it had not been necessary for him to see me to take the resemblance. I thanked them very much for the intention; but utterly refused complying with it, fearing it would be reported, (at least in England,) that I had set up my own statue. They were so obstinate in the design, I was forced to tell them my religion would not permit it. I seriously believe it would have been worshipped, when I was forgotten, under the name of some saint or other, since I was to have been represented with a book in my hand, which would have passed for a proof of canonization. This compliment was certainly founded on reasons not unlike those that first famed goddesses, I mean being useful to them, in which I am second to Ceres. If it be true she taught the art of sowing wheat, it is certain I have learned them to make bread, in which they continued in the same ignorance Misson complains of, (as you may see in his letter from Padua.) I have introduced French rolls, custards, minced pies, and plumb-pudding, which they are very fond of. 'Tis impossible to bring them to conform to syllabub, which is so unnatural a mixture in their eyes, they are even shocked to see me eat it: but I expect immortality from the science of butter-making, in which they are become so skilful from my instructions." Again she writes from the same place, under date the 10th of June, 1753:—"I have been these six weeks, and still am, at my dairy-house, which joins to my garden. I believe I have already told you it is a long mile from the castle, which is situate in the midst of a very large village, once a considerable town, part of the walls still remaining, and has not vacant ground enough about it to make a garden, which is my greatest amusement, it being now troublesome to walk, or even go in the chaise till the evening. I have fitted up in this farm-house a room for myself, that is to say, strewed the floor with rushes, covered the chimney with moss and branches, and adorned the room with basons of earthen ware (which is made here to great perfection,) filled with flowers, and put in some straw chairs, and a couch bed, which is my whole furniture. This spot of ground is so beautiful, I am afraid you will scarce credit the description, which, however, I can assure you, shall be very literal, without any embellishment from imagination. It is on a bank, forming a kind of peninsula, raised from the river Oglio fifty feet, to which you may descend by easy stairs cut in the turf, and either take the air on the river, which is as large as the Thames at Richmond, or by walking an avenue two hundred yards on the side of it, you find a wood of a hundred acres, which was all ready cut into walks and ridings when I took it. I have only added fifteen bowers in different views, with seats of turf. They were easily made, here being a large quantity of underwood, and a great number of wild vines, which twist to the top of the highest trees, and from which they make a very good sort of wine they call brusco. I am now writing to you in one of these arbours, which is so thick shaded, the sun is not troublesome, even at noon. Another is on the side of the river, where I have made a camp kitchen, that I may take the fish, dress, and eat it immediately, and at the same time see the barks, which ascend or descend every day to or from Mantua, Guastalla, or Ponte de Vie, all

considerable towns. This little wood is carpetted in their succeeding seasons, with violets and strawberries, inhabited by a nation of nightingales, and filled with game of all kinds, excepting deer and wild boar, the first being unknown here, and it not being large enough for the other. My garden was a plain vineyard when it came into my hands not two years ago, and it is, with a small expense, turned into a garden that (apart from the advantage of the climate) I like better than that of Kensington. The Italian vineyards are not planted like those in France, but in clumps, fastened to trees planted in equal ranks, (commonly fruit trees,) and continued in festoons from one to another, which I have turned into covered galleries of shade, that I can walk in the heat without being incommoded by it. I have made a dining-room of verdure capable of holding a table of twenty covers; the whole ground is three hundred and seventeen feet in length, and two hundred in breadth. You see it is far from large; but so prettily disposed, though I say it, that I never saw a more agreeable rustic garden, abounding with all sorts of fruit, and producing a variety of wines. I would send you a pipe if I did not fear the customs would make you pay too dear for it. I believe my description gives you but an imperfect idea of my garden. Perhaps I shall succeed better in describing my manner of life, which is as regular as that of any monastery. I generally rise at six, and as soon as I have breakfasted, put myself at the head of my needle-women, and work with them till nine. I then inspect my dairy, and take a turn among my poultry, which is a very large inquiry. I have at present two hundred chickens, besides turkeys, geese, ducks, and peacocks. All things have hitherto prospered under my care; my bees and silk-worms are doubled, and I am told that, without accidents, my capital will be so in two years' time. At eleven o'clock I retire to my books; I dare not indulge myself in that pleasure above an hour. At twelve I constantly dine, and sleep after dinner till about three. I then send for some of my old priests, and either play at piquet or whist, till 'tis cool enough to go out. One evening I walk in my wood, where I often sup, take the air on horseback the next, and go on the water the third. The fishery of this part of the river belongs to me; and my fisherman's little boat—to which I have a green lute-string awning—serves me for a barge. He and his son are my rowers without any expense, he being very well paid by the profit of the fish, which I give him on condition of having every day one dish for my table. Here is plenty of every sort of fresh water fish, excepting salmon; but we have a large trout so like it, that I, who have almost forgot the taste, do not distinguish it. We are both placed properly in regard to our different times of life: you amidst the fair, the gallant, and the gay; I, in a retreat, where I enjoy every amusement that solitude can afford. I confess I sometimes wish for a little conversation; but I reflect that the commerce of the world gives more uneasiness than pleasure, and quiet is all the hope that can reasonably be indulged at my age." These extracts are alike creditable to her ladyship's head and heart. They prove that she had preserved the freshness of her feelings throughout a life spent, from early years, in circles by no means favourable to simple tastes and unsophisticated habits.

We give one other extract from her correspondence, as a specimen of the justness of her criticism, and the acuteness of her political views.

Writing to her daughter, she says of Lord Bolingbroke's works, they furnish "a glaring proof how far vanity can blind a man, and how easy it is to varnish over to one's self the most criminal conduct. He declares he always loved his country, though he confesses he endeavoured to betray her to popery and slavery; and loved his friends, though he abandoned them in distress, with all the blackest circumstances of treachery. His account of the peace of Utrecht is almost equally unfair or partial; I shall allow that, perhaps, the views of the whigs, at that time, were too vast, and the nation, dazzled by military glory, had hopes too sanguine; but surely the same terms that the French consented to, at the treaty of Gertruydenberg, might have been obtained; or if the displacing of the duke of Marlborough raised the spirits of our enemies to a degree of refusing what they had before offered, how can he excuse the guilt of removing him from the head of a victorious army, and exposing us to submit to any articles of peace, being unable to continue the war? I agree with him, that the idea of conquering France is a wild extravagant notion, and would, if possible, be impolitic; but she might have been reduced to such a state, as would have rendered her incapable of being terrible to her neighbours for some ages: nor should we have been obliged, as we have done almost ever since, to bribe the French ministers to let us live in quiet. So much for his political reasonings, which, I confess, are delivered in a florid, easy style; but I cannot be of Lord Orrery's opinion, that he is one of the best English writers. Well turned periods, or smooth lines, are not the perfection either of prose or verse; they may serve to adorn, but can never stand in the place of good sense. Copiousness of words, however ranged, is always false eloquence, though it will ever impose on some sort of understandings. How many readers and admirers has Madame de Sevigné, who only gives us, in a lively manner, and fashionable phrases, mean sentiments, vulgar prejudices, and endless repetitions? Sometimes the tittle tattle of a fine lady, sometimes that of an old nurse, always tittle tattle; yet so well gilt over by airy expressions and a flowing style, she will always please the same people to whom Lord Bolingbroke will shine as a first-rate author. She is so far to be excused, as her letters were not intended for the press; while he labours to display to posterity all the wit and learning he is master of, and sometimes spoils a good argument by a profusion of words, running out into several pages a thought that might have been more clearly expressed in a few lines; and, what is worse, often falls into contradiction and repetitions, which are almost unavoidable to all voluminous writers, and can only be forgiven to those retailers, whose necessity compels them to diurnal scribbling, who load their meaning with epithets, and run into digressions, because, in the jockey phrase, it rids ground, that is, covers a certain quantity of paper to answer the demand of the day. A great part of Lord Bolingbroke's letters are designed to show his reading, which, indeed, appears to have been very extensive; but I cannot perceive that such a minute account of it can be of any use to the pupil he pretends to instruct; nor can I help thinking he is far below either Tillotson or Addison, even in style, though the latter was sometimes more diffuse than his judgment approved, to furnish out the length of a daily Spectator. I own I have small regard for Lord Bolingbroke as an author, and the highest contempt for him as a man. He

came into the world greatly favoured both by nature and fortune, blest with a noble birth, heir to a large estate, endowed with a strong constitution, and, as I have heard, a beautiful figure, high spirits, a good memory, and a lively apprehension, which was cultivated by a learned education: all these glorious advantages being left to the direction of a judgment stifled by unbounded vanity, he dishonoured his birth, lost his estate, ruined his reputation, and destroyed his health by a wild pursuit of eminence even in vice and trifles."

These extracts must, we think, impress the reader with a very favourable view of Lady Mary's talents, and of her epistolary style. She wrote verses which are always sprightly and entertaining; but it is to the ease and beauty of her letters that she owes her rank in English literature. She returned to England in 1761, and died in 1762. Her works were published in four volumes, 12mo, by Mr Dallaway of the Herald's college, London, in 1803.

Lady Mary's son, Edward Wortley Montague, born in 1713, was one of the most singular characters of his age. After spending a rambling life in various parts of Europe, he set out for the East, where he first embraced Roman Catholicism, and then Mahommedanism. He was a man of considerable genius, and wrote some pieces of merit; but he seems to have been latterly, at least, deranged in his intellect. He died at Padua in 1776.

### Henrietta, Countess of Suffolk.

BORN A. D. 1688.—DIED A. D. 1767.

WE can scarcely overlook this lady, after the notice we have just bestowed on her not more gifted contemporary. To her letters and those of Lady Mary Wortley Montague we are indebted for much of our information respecting the political parties of their day; the letters themselves are, besides, models of epistolary composition.

Henrietta Hobart was the eldest daughter of Sir Henry Hobart, the fourth baronet of his family, and sister of Hobart, earl of Buckinghamshire. In 1708 she married the honourable Charles Howard, third son of Henry, fifth earl of Suffolk. The union was unfortunate; though it may be doubted whether the husband deserved all the reproaches which Horace Walpole has heaped upon him. When the Hanoverian succession became a matter of daily expectation, the young couple repaired to the court of Hanover, where they succeeded in ingratiating themselves with the future king and queen of Britain. On the accession of George I., to use the words of the editor of Lady Suffolk's correspondence, "the elder whig politicians became ministers to the king. The most promising of the young lords and gentlemen of the party, and the prettiest and liveliest of the young ladies, formed the new court of the prince and princess of Wales. The apartment of the bedchamber-woman in waiting became the fashionable evening rendezvous of the most celebrated wits and beauties. In this brilliant circle were formed the intimacies and friendships which produced the following correspondence:—Though Miss Bellenden, one of the maids of honour, bore away the palm of beauty, and her colleague, Miss Lepell, that of



grace and wit, Mrs Howard's good sense, amiability, and sweetness of temper and manners, made her a universal favourite; and it was her singular good fortune to be at once distinguished by her mistress, and beloved by her companions."

Every one has heard of Lady Hobart's undue intimacy with George II. The editor of her letters holds her guiltless of the charges which have been so often preferred against her on this score. His argument is by no means convincing, but we shall let her ladyship have the benefit of it:—"It is remarkable," he says, "that though her favour with the prince seemed gradually to increase, that with the princess kept pace with it. This latter circumstance should, it may be thought, have prevented any scandal which might otherwise have arisen from the former: but although, as Walpole allows, that 'the propriety and decency of Mrs Howard's behaviour were so great that she was always treated as if her character never had been questioned—her friends affecting to suppose that her connexion with the prince had been confined to pure friendship,'—yet the world certainly suspected a more tender attachment; and Walpole has, in his 'Reminiscences', made direct charges of this nature, with such confidence and particularity, that the transitory scandal of the day has been, on his authority, embodied in the graver pages of history. But a careful perusal of all Lady Suffolk's original papers obliges the editor to declare, that he not only finds a large proportion of Walpole's anecdotes to be unfounded; but that he has not, in Mrs Howard's correspondence with the king, nor the notes of her conversations with the queen, nor in any of her most confidential papers, found a single trace of the feeling which Walpole so confidently imputes. Lady Suffolk, in her old age, became Mr Walpole's neighbour, and their acquaintance grew into intimacy; but most of what he relates of her early life he had from his father and his father's friends, who were inflamed with violent personal and political prejudices against Mrs Howard. It is therefore not surprising that stories, thus envenomed by faction, should be often unfounded, and always exaggerated. Walpole had, moreover, a decided antipathy to George the Second; and the friendship of his later years for Lady Suffolk was not strong enough to control his early inclination to depreciate that monarch. Individual instances of his mistakes and misrepresentations will appear in the notes; but it is necessary thus generally to state, that all his anecdotes relative to George the Second and Mrs Howard must be received with great caution. There is no doubt that Mr Howard took some violent steps to remove his lady from her situation in the princess's family; and this circumstance the world admitted, and Walpole quotes, as proof that there was reason for the jealousy of the husband. It appears, however, that, in this inference, as to Mr Howard's motives, the world and Walpole were certainly mistaken. It is well-known, that within a very few years after their arrival in England, a difference broke out between George the First and his son: this rupture was not only violent but public, and never was completely healed. The old king's resentment, open as it was against his son, was still more rooted against the princess, whom to his familiars he used, with a whimsical mixture of respect and rage, to designate as '*cette diabolique Madame la Princesse*.' In this unhappy dispute Mr and Mrs Howard were soon involved. He was groom of the bedchamber to the

king. She was favourite to '*cette diablesse Madame la Princesse.*' It is therefore not surprising that they should have been estranged from one another, when the quarrel ran so high that even the casual visitors at one court were, by notice in the London Gazette, forbidden to appear at the other. As Mrs Howard's favour increased, she became a more marked object of the king's hostility,—not so much on her own personal account, as on that of the prince and princess: and at last, by his majesty's positive commands, as appears from Mr Howard's own letters, this gentleman was induced to endeavour to separate his wife from the princess. Walpole imputes, as we have stated, Mr Howard's proceedings to jealousy, and it is now impossible to prove a negative on such a subject; but the editor can assert, that in no part of his correspondence does Mr Howard allege any such feeling. He grounds his proceedings on the king's positive commands; though he also admits that he himself had a separate object of his own; namely, to oblige his lady to enter into some legal settlements of her property, which her lawyers advised her to resist. Walpole further states that Mr Howard procured the archbishop of Canterbury to be the bearer of a letter from him to his wife, commanding her to return to conjugal obedience; and he adds that the princess had the malicious pleasure of delivering this letter to her rival. This anecdote affords a striking instance of the mode of misrepresentation in which the whole subject has been treated. The letter which Walpole alludes to is in existence. It is not a letter from Mr Howard to his lady, but from the archbishop to the princess; and, although his grace urges a compliance with Mr Howard's demand of the restoration of his wife, he treats it not as a matter between them, but as an attack on the princess herself; whom the archbishop considers as the direct protectress of Mrs Howard, and the immediate cause of her resistance. So that, in this letter at least, there is no ground for imputing to Mrs Howard any rivalry with the princess, or to the princess any malicious jealousy of Mrs Howard. These unhappy disputes lasted as long as George the First lived, but when its cause ceased, Mr Howard's violence began to subside. The question, as to the settlement of the property, was speedily arranged, and a formal separation between the parties was effected."

In 1731, Mr Howard succeeded to the earldom of Suffolk, and the countess was made mistress of the robes to her majesty,—an office which she resigned in 1734, on the death of Lord Suffolk. In 1735, she married the honourable George Berkeley, youngest son of the earl of Berkeley, with whom she appears to have lived in great cordiality and affection until the period of his death in 1746.

Lady Suffolk died in July, 1767. "Her ladyship," says Walpole, "was of a just height, well made, extremely fair, with the finest light-brown hair; was remarkably genteel, and always well dressed, with taste and simplicity. Those were her personal charms, for her face was regular and agreeable rather than beautiful; and those attractions she retained with little diminution to her death, at the age of 79. Her mental qualifications were not so shining; her eyes and countenance showed her character, which was grave and mild. Her strict love of truth and her accurate memory were always in unison. She was discreet without being reserved; and having no bad qualities, and being

constant to her connexions, she preserved uncommon respect to the end of her life."

Lady Suffolk's correspondence was published in 1824, in 2 vols. 8vo.<sup>1</sup> The catalogue of her correspondents includes Pope, Swift, Arbuthnot, Gay, and Young;—the duchesses of Buckingham, Marlborough, and Queensberry; Ladies Orkney, Mohun, Hervey, Vere, and Temple;—Misses Bellenden, Blount, Howe, and Pitt;—Lords Peterborough, Bolingbroke, Chesterfield, Lansdowne, Mansfield, and Bathurst;—Messrs Fortescue, Pulteney, Pelham, Pitt, Grenville, and Horace Walpole.

In Swift's posthumous works is the following character of Lady Suffolk, which the dean presented to her himself, and which is often referred to in her ladyship's correspondence with Pope and Swift:—"I shall say nothing of her wit or beauty, which are freely allowed by all persons of taste and eyes, who hear or see her: for beauty, being transient, and a trifle, cannot justly make part of a character intended to last; and I leave others to celebrate her wit, because it will be of little use in the light I design to show her. As to her history, it will be sufficient to observe, that she went in the prime of her youth to the court of Hanover, and there became of the bedchamber to the present princess of Wales, living with the rest in expectation of the great event of the queen's death, after which she came over with her mistress, and hath ever since continued in her royal highness's service; where, from the attendance duly paid her by all the ministers, as well as others who expect advancement, she hath been reckoned for some years to be the great favourite of the court at Leicester-fields, which is a fact that of all others she most earnestly wishes might not be believed.

"There is no politician who more carefully watches the motions and dispositions of things and persons at St James's-house, nor can form a language with more imperceptible dexterity to the present situation of the court; or more early foresee what style may be proper upon any approaching juncture of affairs, whereof she can gather timely intelligence without asking it, and often when those from whom she receives it do not know that they are giving it to her, but equally with others admire her sagacity. Sir Robert Walpole and she both think they understand each other, and are both of them mistaken.

"With persons where she is to manage she is very expert in what the French call *tâter le pavé*: with others she is a great vindicator of all present proceedings, but in such a manner as if she were under no concern further than her bare opinion, and wondering how any body can think otherwise; but the danger is, that she may come in time to believe herself, which, under a change of princes, and with a great addition of credit, might have terrible consequences. She is a most unconscionable dealer; for in return for a few good words given to her lords and gentlemen daily waiters, during their attendance, she receives ten thousand from them behind her back. The credit she hath is managed with the utmost parsimony, and whenever she employs it, which is as seldom as possible, it is only upon such occasions where she is sure to get more than she spends. She would readily press Sir Robert Walpole to do some favour for Ch. Churchill or Mr Doddington, the

<sup>1</sup> London: Murray.

princess for some mark of grace to Mrs Clayton, or his royal highness to remember Mr Schutz. She sometimes falls into the general mistake of all courtiers, of not suiting her talents to the different abilities of others, but thinking those she deals with to have less art than they really are masters of, whereby she may possibly be sometimes deceived when she thinks she deceiveth. In all offices of life, except that of a courtier, she acts with justice, generosity, and truth; she is ready to do good as a private person, and I could almost think in charity, that she will not do hurt as a courtier, unless it be to those who deserve it.

"In religion she is at least a latitudinarian, neither an enemy nor a stranger to books which maintain the opinions of freethinkers; wherein she is the more to be blamed, as having too much morality to need their assistance, and requiring only a due degree of faith for putting her in the road to salvation. I speak this of her as a private lady, not as a court favourite, for in this latter capacity she can show neither faith nor works. If she had never seen a court, it is possible she might have been a friend. She abounds in good words and good wishes, and will concert a hundred schemes with those whom she favours, in order to their advancement; schemes that sometimes arise from them, and sometimes from herself, although at the same time she very well knows that both are without the least probability to succeed. But to do her justice, she never feeds or deceives any person with promises where she doth not then think that she intendeth some degree of sincerity. She is upon the whole an excellent companion for men of the best accomplishments who have nothing to ask.

"What part she may act hereafter in a larger sphere, as lady of the bedchamber to a great queen, and in high esteem with a king, neither she nor I can foretell. My own opinion is natural and obvious, that her talents as a courtier will spread, enlarge, and multiply to such a degree, that her private virtues, for want of room and time to operate, must be folded and laid up clean like clothes in a chest, never to be put on till satiety, or some reverse of fortune, shall dispose her to retirement. In the mean time it will be her prudence to take care that they may not be tarnished or moth-eaten, for want of opening and airing, and turning at least once a year."

### David Mallet.

BORN A. D. 1700.—DIED A. D. 1765.

THIS author was of Scottish descent. His father's name was Malloch, which David thought fit to change to Mallet after his removal to England. His parents were people in poor circumstances; but they appear to have obtained a liberal education for their son, for we find him, while yet a young man, appointed tutor to the duke of Montrose's sons, at the recommendation of some of the Edinburgh professors. He made the tour of Europe with his pupils; and, on his return to England, was introduced under their auspices to the best society of the day.

Mallet's first production was the ballad of 'William and Margaret,' which was printed in Aaron Hill's 'Plain Dealer,' No. 36. In subsequent editions various alterations—not all improvements—were intro-

duced into this popular piece. In 1728 he published 'The Excursion,' a poem not without merit, but of which the idea was evidently caught from Thomson's 'Seasons,' then in their full-tide of popularity. In 1734 he appeared as a dramatic author, but unsuccessfully. Even the acting of Garrick and Mrs Cibber failed to render this first tragedy acceptable to an English audience, at a distance of nearly thirty years from its first appearance. His 'Mustapha,' published in 1739, succeeded much better than 'Eurydice;' but its success was chiefly owing to its political allusions. Mallet was at this time under-secretary to the prince of Wales; and endeavoured to serve and gratify his patron by his exhibition of Sir Robert Walpole under the character of Rustan the vizier, and the king, as Solyman the magnificent. On the first night of its representation, the heads of the opposition attended, and by their plaudits sustained the performance throughout. In the following year Mallet, in conjunction with Thomson, wrote the masque of 'Alfred.'

In 1747 Mallet published his 'Hermit, or Amyntor and Theodora,' a poem which has been praised by Johnson for copiousness of language and vigour of sentiment, and censured by Warton for nauseous affectation. "Not long after this," says Chalmers, "Mallet was employed by Lord Bolingbroke in an office which he executed with all the malignity that his employer could wish. This was no other than to defame the character of Pope—Pope, who by leaving the whole of his MSS. to Lord Bolingbroke, had made him in some respect the guardian of his character—Pope, on whose death-bed Lord Bolingbroke looking earnestly down, repeated several times, interrupted with sobs, 'O great God, what is man? I never knew a person that had so tender a heart for his particular friends, or a warmer benevolence for all mankind!' who certainly had idolized this nobleman throughout his whole life, and who adhered to his lordship's cause through all the vicissitudes of popular odium and exile. What could have induced Bolingbroke to the malice of degrading Pope's character, and the cowardice of employing a hireling to do it? The simple fact is, that after Pope's death it was thought to be discovered that he had privately printed 1500 copies of one of Lord Bolingbroke's works, 'The Patriot King,' the perusal of which his lordship wished to be confined to a select few. This offence, which Mallet only could have traced to a bad motive, if fairly examined, will probably seem disproportioned to the rage and resentment of Bolingbroke. A very acute examiner of evidence (Mr D'Israeli) has therefore imputed that to the preference with which Pope had distinguished Warburton, and is of opinion that Warburton, much more than Pope, was the real object. Between Bolingbroke and Warburton there was, it is well-known, a secret jealousy, which at length appeared in mutual and undisguised contempt. But much of this narrative belongs rather to them than to Mallet, who could feel no resentment, could plead no provocation. On the contrary, he had every inducement to reflect with tenderness on the memory and friendship of Pope, who speaks of him, in a letter we have already alluded to, in the following terms: 'To prove to you how little essential to friendship I hold letter-writing—I have not yet written to Mr Mallet, whom I love and esteem greatly, nay, whom I know to have as tender a heart, and that feels a friendly remembrance as long as any man.' Such was the man who gladly undertook what Bolingbroke was ashamed to perform, and in a preface

to the 'Patriot King,' misrepresented the conduct of Pope in language the most malignant and contemptuous. That he had an eye to his own interest in all this, it would be a miserable affectation of liberality to doubt. No other motive can account for his conduct, and this conduct will be found to correspond with his general character. Bolingbroke accordingly rewarded him by bequeathing to him all his writings, published and unpublished, and Mallet immediately began to prepare them for the press. His conduct at the very outset of this business affords another illustration of his character. Francklin, the printer, to whom many of the political pieces written during the opposition to Walpole, had been given, as he supposed, in perpetuity, laid claim to some compensation for those. Mallet allowed his claim, and the question was referred to arbitrators, who were empowered to decide upon it, by an instrument signed by the parties; but when they decided unfavourable to Mr Mallet, he refused to yield to the decision, and the printer was thus deprived of the benefit of the award, by not having insisted upon bonds of arbitration, to which Mallet had objected as degrading to a man of honour! He then proceeded, with the help of Millar, the bookseller, to publish all he could find; and so sanguine was he in his expectations, that he rejected the offer of £3000 which Millar offered him for the copyright, although he was at this time so distressed for money that he was forced to borrow some of Millar to pay the stationer and printer. The work at last appeared, in 5 vols. 4to, and Mallet had soon reason to repent his refusal of the bookseller's offer, as this edition was not sold off in twenty years. As these volumes contained many bold attacks on revealed religion, they brought much obloquy on the editor, and even a presentment was made of them by the grand-jury of Westminster. His memory, however, will be thought to suffer yet more by his next appearance in print. When the nation was exasperated by the ill success of the war, and the ministry wished to divert public indignation from themselves, Mallet was employed to turn it upon Admiral Byng. In this he entered as heartily as into the defamation of Pope, and wrote a letter of accusation under the character of a 'Plain Man,' a large sheet, which was circulated with great industry, and probably was found to answer its purpose. The price of blood, on this occasion, was a pension which he retained till his death."

From 1757 to 1763 we hear little of Mallet. He was during a portion of this period understood to be engaged upon a life of the celebrated Marlborough, and was actually in receipt of a pension from the family on account of the promised work. But it never appeared, and no trace of it was discovered amongst his manuscripts after his death; so that it is even doubtful whether he ever put pen to paper about it. In 1763 Mallet again appeared as a candidate for dramatic fame in his tragedy of 'Elvira;' but this too was a political brochure intended to support the Bute administration, and met the fate it deserved.

Mallet died in 1765. His collected works were published in 1769, in 3 vols. 8vo.

## Edward Young.

BORN A. D. 1681.—DIED A. D. 1765.

DR EDWARD YOUNG, the well-known author of the 'Night Thoughts,' was born in the year 1681, at Upham in Hampshire, of which place his father, Dr Edward Young, dean of Sarum, was then rector. At a proper age he went to Winchester school, where he became a scholar upon that foundation. In his eighteenth year he was admitted of New College, Oxford; but there being no fellowship vacant, he removed, before the expiration of the year, to Corpus Christi college, where he entered himself a gentleman-commoner. In 1708 he was put into a law-fellowship at All Souls by Archbishop Tennison, into whose hands it came by a devolution. In consequence of this preferment, in 1714 he took the degree of bachelor of civil laws; and in 1719 he became a doctor of laws. Two years after this, he was prevailed upon by the duke of Wharton, who patronized him, to offer himself a candidate for the representation of the borough of Cirencester; but in this attempt he was unsuccessful.

In the mean time he had applied himself to the study of poetry with such success, that he produced, the same year, a tragedy called 'Busiris,' which was acted with great applause; and in 1721 this play was followed by another, entitled 'The Revenge,' which is esteemed his best dramatic performance, and is still a standard play. He afterwards brought a third tragedy upon the stage, entitled 'The Brothers,' which was also acted with applause.

While at Oxford, our author published 'A Poem on the Last Day,' which was received with peculiar applause, but it must be confessed, fails to approach the intrinsic grandeur of its lofty theme. This production was soon followed by another, entitled 'The Force of Religion, or Vanquished Love;' which was also well received, and was particularly pleasing to the noble family more immediately interested in the subject of his verse.

As a poet, Dr Young has other and better claims upon posterity for reputation than what arise from these performances; but whatever may be their merit, they served to introduce him to the notice of several of the nobility; and the turn of his mind leading to divinity, he quitted the study of the law, and entering into holy orders, was appointed chaplain in ordinary to George II. in the year 1728. Ruffhead, in his life of Pope, relates that when Young determined to go into orders, he applied to Pope for directions as to his new studies; and that Pope presented him with the works of Thomas Aquinas, assuring him that he could not employ himself more profitably than in studying that author. "With this treasure," says Ruffhead, "he retired, in order to be free from interruption, to an obscure place in the suburbs. His director hearing no more of him in six months, and apprehending he might have carried the jest too far, sought after him, and found him out just in time to prevent an irretrievable derangement."

In the year 1730, Dr Young was presented by his college to the valuable rectory of Welwyn in Hertfordshire; and his fellowship being

vacated by this preferment, he entered soon after into a marriage with Lady Betty Lee, widow of Colonel Lee, and daughter to the earl of Litchfield; a woman of excellent endowments, and great sweetness of temper. In the mean time, the duties of the clerical profession had not entirely withdrawn his attention from those elegant pursuits to which he was attached by nature and education; polite literature still attracted his regard; and, amidst his severer studies, he continued to cultivate his poetical talents.

His seven satires, entitled 'The Love of Fame the Universal Passion,' and which were at first separately printed in folio, at different times, were well-received by the public; but his most celebrated performance is his 'Night Thoughts.' Dr Young's lady had two children by her former husband, a son and a daughter, whose amiable qualities so entirely engaged his affections, that he loved them with all a father's fondness; and as she had also brought him a son, his domestic felicity seemed complete. But in the year 1741, it was suddenly and irretrievably interrupted by the death of his wife, and her son and daughter, who were all taken from him within a short time of each other. This was an affliction which called for every consolation that reason and religion could inspire; and how deeply he was affected by his loss, and what painful struggles he underwent before he could regain any tolerable tranquillity of mind is evident from the 'Night Thoughts,' the idea of which was first suggested by this severe domestic calamity. It is generally supposed that Mr and Mrs Temple, the daughter and son-in-law of Lady Elizabeth, were the Philander and Narcissa of the 'Night Thoughts;' but the supposition that by Lorenzo the poet indicated his own son is absurd, for Young's own child was not born till June 1733, and was only eight years old when the poem was published.

In 1755, he published 'The Centaur not fabulous. In Six Letters to a Friend, on the Life in Vogue.' An explanation of this singular title will throw some light on the nature of the work. The author himself has thus given it to his readers: "The men of pleasure," says he, "the licentious and profligate, are the subjects of these letters; and in such, as in the fabled centaur, the brute runs away with the man; therefore I call them centaurs. And further, I call them centaurs not fabulous, because, by their scarcely half-human conduct and character, that enigmatical and purely ideal figure of the ancients is not unriddled only but realized." The general strain of these letters is strongly characteristic of the author of the 'Night Thoughts,' notwithstanding an air of gaiety and even levity which is occasionally assumed; and they are, in many instances, distinguished by a striking originality of sentiment and peculiar brilliancy of expression.

As Dr Young possessed so much talent, and had been appointed chaplain to George II. so early as the year 1728, it appears extraordinary that he never obtained any preferment in the church, but ended his days upon a living which came to him from his college without any favour. "To satisfy curiosity of this kind," says Mr Herbert Croft, "is at this distance of time far less easy. The parties themselves know not often at the instant why they are neglected. The neglect of Young is by some ascribed to his having attached himself to the prince of Wales, and to his having preached an offensive sermon at St James's. It has been told me, that he had two hundred a-year in



the late reign, by the patronage of Walpole; and that, whenever the king was reminded of Young, the only answer was, 'he has a pension.' "

About two years after this, he published a prose piece of great merit, entitled 'Conjectures on Original composition, in a Letter to the Author of Sir Charles Grandison.'

Dr Young's last performance was a poem, entitled 'Resignation,' which is inferior to his other works. It was published not long before his death, which happened at Welwyn, on the 12th of April, 1765. He was buried under the altar-piece of that parish-church, by the side of his wife.

Dr Young was a man of considerable genius and great wit. The turn of his mind is said to have been naturally solemn; and it is affirmed that, during his residence in the country, he commonly spent some hours a-day amongst the tombs in his own churchyard. This must have been, we think, with the view of exciting an artificial melancholy, for the whole tone of his writings is that of exaggeration and artificiality; it betrays neither tenderness nor deep emotion. Percival Stockdale's estimate of Young's general character as a poet appears to us very just: "Nature had bestowed on Young an exuberant, vigorous, and original genius. It was boundless in its versatility; it was inexhaustible in its resources. But its uncommon and splendid qualities were darkened and dishonoured by their opposite characteristics. He has left us many proofs that he could be extremely injudicious; his taste was extremely vitiated. He is apt to prolong a forcible and shining thought to its debility and its death, by an Ovidian redundancy and puerility; and he seems to have exerted the whole stretch and grasp of his mind to unite remote images and thoughts which could never have been associated but by the most elaborate affectation." And yet, notwithstanding this natural gloominess of temper, he was so fond of amusements, that he instituted an assembly and a bowling-green in his parish, which he frequently honoured with his presence.<sup>1</sup>

Dr Young himself, in 1762, published a collection of such of his works as he thought best of in four volumes, 12mo, under the title of 'The Works of the Author of the Night Thoughts.' A fifth volume was published after his death.

### Thomas Birch, D. D.

BORN A. D. 1705.—DIED A. D. 1766.

THIS industrious writer was born of Quaker parents, in the parish of St John's, Clerkenwell, Middlesex, on the 23d of November, 1705. His early education was conducted under many disadvantages; but his energy and application enabled him to triumph over them, and he received orders in the church of England in the beginning of the year 1728. Mr Birch obtained several successive preferments in the church, chiefly through the influence of the Hardwicke family, who steadily patronized him. In 1752 he was elected one of the secretaries of the Royal so-

<sup>1</sup> It is a traditionary report at Oxford that, when he was composing, he would shut up his windows, and sit by a lamp, even at mid-day; and that skulls and bones were among the ornaments of his study!

ciety; and, the following year, was created D. D. Dr Birch died on the 9th of January, 1766.

The first great work in which Dr Birch engaged, was 'The General Dictionary, historical and critical,' founded on Bayle's celebrated work. The first volume of this work appeared in 1734; the tenth and last in 1741. He was next employed on the Thurlow state-papers. This collection, comprised in seven volumes folio, was published in 1742. In 1744 he published a life of Mr Boyle; and in the same year he lent his assistance to Houbraken and Vertue, in their design of publishing the portraits of illustrious persons. In 1747 he published 'An Inquiry into the share which King Charles I. had in the Transactions of the Earl of Glamorgan;' and soon after, he edited the miscellaneous works of Sir Walter Raleigh. The next publication was 'An Historical View of the Negotiations between the courts of England, France, and Brussels, from 1592 to 1617.' His 'Life of Tillotson,' 'Memoirs of the Reign of Queen Elizabeth,' 'History of the Royal society,' 'Life of Henry, Prince of Wales,' and miscellanies of Lord Bacon, were successively published between the year 1753 and that of his death; and afford ample proof of his unwearied industry.

### Richard Dawes.

BORN A. D. 1708.—DIED A. D. 1766.

A RESPECTABLE family of the name of Dawes had long been resident at Stapleton, between Market-Bosworth and Hinckley in Leicestershire: our critic was probably of the same family, but it does not appear from the register of the parish that he was born at that place. There was a Dr Dawes who resided at Stapleton early in the eighteenth century, and is recollected to have been a great scholar, and a searcher after the philosopher's stone. It has been supposed that he might be father to the subject of the present article; but of this fact no decisive evidence can be produced. All the traditions concerning Richard Dawes are, that the place of his birth was either Market-Bosworth, or the vicinity of that town. Whoever his parents were, or whatever was their condition in life, it is probable that they perceived such marks of capacity in their son as determined them to devote him to a literary profession; and accordingly he was put to the free grammar-school at Bosworth, where he had the good fortune to receive part of his education under the care of Anthony Blackwall, an excellent grammarian, and well-known in the world of letters by several critical publications. Under so able an instructor, young Dawes laid the foundation of that exquisite knowledge of the Greek language to which he afterwards attained. In 1725 he was admitted a sizar of Emanuel college, in the university of Cambridge, where he proceeded Bachelor of Arts in 1729. On the 2d of October, 1731, he became a fellow of the college on the nomination of Sir Wolston Dixie, Bart. In 1733 he took the degree of master of arts. The next year he was a candidate for the place of esquire beadle of the university; but his application was not crowned with success. Whilst Mr Dawes was at Cambridge, he distinguished himself by some peculiarities of conduct which probably arose from a

dash of insanity in his constitution; and in his conversation he occasionally took such liberties on certain topics as gave great offence to those about him. Having indulged himself too much at college in an indolent sedentary way of life, he at length found it absolutely necessary to have recourse to some kind of exercise. In this case, being of a strong athletic frame of body, and not over delicate in the choice of his company, he took to the practice of ringing; and, as such a genius could not stop at mediocrity, he quickly became the leader of the peal, and carried the art to the highest perfection.

Another circumstance, though of a very different nature, by which Mr Dawes rendered himself remarkable, was his taking a violent part against Dr Bentley. He even went so far as to depreciate that great man's literature. In his '*Miscellanea Critica*,' he endeavours, on several occasions, to detract from Dr Bentley's praises; he even did not scruple to assert, that the Doctor, "*nihil in Græcis cognovisse, nisi ex indicibus petitum*,"—knew nothing relative to Grecian literature, but what he had drawn from indexes! It was impossible that any thing could be more unjust than such an assertion; and it could only proceed from extreme vanity, or personal dislike, or a bigoted attachment to a party.

In 1736, Mr Dawes published proposals for printing, by subscription, '*Paradisi amissi, a cl. Miltono conscripti, Liber primus, Græcâ versione donatus, una cum Annotationibus*.' These proposals were accompanied with a specimen, which may be seen in the '*Great General Dictionary*,' under the article Milton, and in the preface to the '*Miscellanea Critica*,' where our author explains his reasons for not proceeding in his undertaking, and very ingenuously points out the errors of his own performance. It was customary with him, in conversation, humorously to expose his version to ridicule; and, therefore—though he had actually completed his design, by translating the whole First Book of the '*Paradise Lost*'—it is no wonder that he did not commit it to the press.

On the 10th of July, 1738, Mr Dawes was appointed master of the free grammar-school in Newcastle-upon-Tyne, in the room of Mr Edmund Lodge who had resigned that office. The commencement of his duties was to take place at the Michaelmas following. In the same year, on the 9th of October, he was preferred, by act of common-council, to the mastership of the hospital of the Virgin Mary in Newcastle.

The business of this new station did not prevent him from prosecuting his inquiries into the nature, peculiarities, and elegancies of the Greek tongue; and accordingly, in 1745, he published his '*Miscellanea Critica*.' Mr Hubbard of Emanuel college, Cambridge, and Dr Mason of Trinity, assisted in the publication. It was Mr Dawes's design in this work, to afford such a specimen of his critical abilities as should enable the learned world to judge what might be expected from him in an edition which he had projected of all the Attic poets, as well as of Homer and Pindar. Though his scheme was never carried into execution, he has obtained, by his '*Miscellanea Critica*,' a very high place among those who have contributed to the promotion of Greek learning in England.

Mr Dawes's situation at Newcastle was neither so happy nor so useful as might have been expected. This was, in a great measure, owing to the eccentricity of his disposition, and, indeed, to his mind

being under morbid impressions. He fancied that all his friends had slighted him or used him ill; and of the jealousy of his temper he has left a remarkable instance, on a very trifling occasion. His printer, by an unfortunate mistake in a passage of Terentianus Maurus, which Mr Dawes had produced in order to correct, had inserted a comma that destroyed the merit of the emendation. In consequence of this involuntary error, our author, in the *Addenda* to his *Miscellanea*, has expressed himself with great indignation. He declares, that he could not conjecture what fault he had committed against the printer that he should envy him the honour, whatever it was, that was due to his correction; and he adds, that he knows not how it has happened, that, for several years past, he has been ill used by those from whom he had deserved better treatment. With the corporation of Newcastle he got involved in altercation; and he adopted a singular method of displaying his resentment, or rather his contempt; for in teaching the boys at school, he made them translate the Greek word for ass into alderman. Such being the disposition of his mind, it is not surprising that his scholars were at length reduced to a very small number; so that it became expedient for him to consent to quit his station. Accordingly, at midsummer, 1749, he resigned the mastership of the grammar-school, and the mastership of St Mary's hospital; and, in consideration of these sacrifices, the mayor and burgesses of Newcastle, on the 25th of September following, executed a bond by which they engaged to grant him an annuity of eighty pounds a-year during life.

Mr Dawes, after his resignation of the above two offices, retired to Heworth-shore, about three miles below Newcastle, on the south side of the Tyne, where his favourite amusement was the exercise of rowing in a boat. In his conversation he preserved to the last his splenetic humour,—abusing every thing, and every person that he had formerly regarded. He departed this life, at Heworth, on the 21st of March, 1766, and, agreeably to his own desire, was buried in the churchyard of that place.<sup>1</sup>

## Zachary Grey.

BORN A. D. 1687.—DIED A. D. 1766.

THIS miscellaneous writer was rector of Houghton-Conquest in Bedfordshire, and vicar of St Peter's and St Giles's in Cambridge. He was educated at Cambridge, and spent his life chiefly in literary pursuits. Chalmers, in his '*Biographical Dictionary*,' has given a list of thirty-three works from the pen of this author. Several of these are on the ecclesiastical transactions of the 17th century, in which he endeavours to vindicate the church-party against the charges of Neal and other puritan divines. He is chiefly known by his edition of *Hudibras*, which exhibits him as a learned and industrious commentator.

<sup>1</sup> Abridged from Dr Kippis's memoir in the '*Biographia Britannica*.'

## James Quin.

BORN A. D. 1693.—DIED A. D. 1766.

THIS great actor was born in London in 1693. His family is generally represented as of Irish origin; but Galt says that it was an ancient English house. He received his education in Dublin, and about the age of twenty came over to London to study law, and took chambers in the Temple. The death of his father threw him upon his own resources before he had nearly finished his studies. In this situation he allowed his friend Ryan, the comedian, to introduce him to the managers of Drury-lane, who were pleased with him, and engaged him to appear in their company in the winter of 1717. He remained some time in the condition of a faggot, as novice-performers were then called; nor was it until the year 1720 that his great talents blazed out, in his being permitted to attempt Falstaff.

"The next year, 1721, of Quin's performance," says Galt in his amusing notice of this player, "is remarkable in dramatic history, as the first in which soldiers appeared as guards in the theatre; an useless pageant, and an event which may be ascribed to the occasional want of common sense, for which the English government has been of old distinguished. Before that season, the theatres had only been guarded by civil constables. A riot arising in that of Lincoln's-inn-fields, gave an occasion for the military power to be added to the civil, for the protection of the audience and the players from insult. The occasion was this:—A certain noble earl, whether Scotch or Irish the record does not say, much addicted to the wholesome and inspiring beverage of whiskey, was behind the scenes, and seeing one of his friends on the other side among the performers, crossed the stage; of course, was hissed by the audience. Rich, who was on the side that the noble earl came to, was so provoked, that he told his lordship 'not to be surprised if he was not allowed again to enter.' The drunken peer struck Mr Rich a slap on the cheek, which was immediately returned, and his lordship's face being round, and fat, and sleek, resounded with the smack of the blow; a battle royal ensued, the players on the one side, and that part of the aristocracy then behind the scenes on the other. In the end, the players being strongest, either in number or valour, thrashed the gentlemen, and turned them all out into the street, where they drew their swords, stormed the boxes, broke the sconces, cut the hangings, and made a wonderful riot, just as foolish sprigs of quality presume even yet to do. Quin came round with a constable and watchmen from the stage, charged the rioters, and they were all taken into custody, and carried in a body before Justice Hungerford, who then lived in the neighbourhood, and were bound by him over to answer the consequences; they were soon, however, persuaded by their wiser friends to make up the matter, and the manager got ample redress. The king, on hearing of the affair, was indignant, and ordered a guard to attend the theatres, and there it nightly stands ever since, a warning monument of a lord drinking too much whiskey."

Quin's reputation gradually rose, until he obtained the summit of his

profession, and could make his own terms with the managers. He was at the head of the Drury Lane company when Garrick made his first appearance in the character of Richard III. In the season of 1746-7, these two great actors were both engaged for Covent Garden. "It is not, perhaps," says Mr Davies, "more difficult to settle the covenants of a league between mighty monarchs, than to adjust the preliminaries of a treaty in which the high and potent princes of a theatre are the parties. Mr Garrick and Mr Quin had too much sense and temper to squabble about trifles. After one or two previous and friendly meetings, they selected such characters as they intended to act, without being obliged to join in the same play. Some parts were to be acted alternately, particularly Richard III. and Othello." The same writer adds:—"Mr Quin soon found that his competition with Mr Garrick, whose reputation was hourly increasing, whilst his own was on the decline, would soon become ineffectual. His 'Richard the Third' could scarce draw together a decent appearance of company in the boxes, and he was with some difficulty tolerated in the part, when Garrick acted the same character to crowded houses, and with very great applause. The town often wished to see these great actors fairly matched in two characters of almost equal importance. The 'Fair Penitent' presented an opportunity to display their several merits, though it must be owned that the balance was as much in favour of Quin, as the advocate of virtue is superior in argument to the defender of profligacy. The shouts of applause when Horatio and Lothario met on the stage together, 14th November, 1746, in the second act, were so loud, and so often repeated before the audience permitted them to speak, that the combatants seemed to be disconcerted. It was observed that Quin changed colour, and Garrick seemed to be embarrassed; and it must be owned that these actors were never less masters of themselves than on the first night of the contest for pre-eminence. Quin was too proud to own his feelings on the occasion; but Mr Garrick was heard to say, 'I believe Quin was as much frightened as myself.' The play was repeatedly acted, and with constant applause, to very brilliant audiences; nor is it to be wondered at; for, besides the novelty of seeing the two rival actors in the same tragedy, the 'Fair Penitent' was admirably played by Mrs Cibber."

Quin's last appearance on the stage was on the 19th of March, 1753. He died in January, 1766.

### Laurence Sterne.

BORN A. D. 1713.—DIED A. D. 1768.

LAURENCE STERNE was the son of an Irish officer, and born in the barracks of Dublin. His great-grandfather was an archbishop, and his uncle a prebendary of one of our cathedrals.

From school he passed in due course to the university, where he spent the usual number of years,—read a great deal, laughed more, and sometimes amused himself with puzzling his tutors. He left Cambridge with the character of an odd man who had no harm in him, and who had parts if he would use them.

Upon quitting the university, he seated himself quietly in the lap of

the church, at Sutton in the forest of Galtrees, a small village in Yorkshire. Here he waited patiently for the issues of time and chance; and here a circumstance happened to which, perhaps, we owe the 'History of Tristram.' A person who filled a lucrative benefice, not satisfied with enjoying it during his own lifetime, exerted all his interest to have it entailed upon his wife and son after his decease. A friend of Sterne's expected the reversion of this living, but had not sufficient influence to prevent the success of his adversary. At this critical period Sterne attacked the monopolizer in joke, and wrote 'The History of a good warm Watch-coat, with which the present possessor is not content to cover his own shoulders, unless he can also cut out of it a petticoat for his wife, and a pair of breeches for his son.' What all the serious arguments in the world could not have effected, Sterne's satirical pen brought about. The party aimed at sent him word, that if he would suppress the publication of this sarcasm, he would resign his pretensions in favour of the next candidate. The pamphlet was suppressed, the reversion took place, and Sterne was requited, by the interest of his patron, with the prebendary of York.

Another incident, which occurred much about the same time, contributed to establish the reputation of Sterne's wit. He was sitting in a coffee-house at York, when a stranger came in, who gave much offence to the company by descanting very freely upon religion and the hypocrisy of the clergy. The young fellow at length addressed himself to Sterne, and asked him what were his sentiments upon the subject. Sterne, instead of answering him directly, told the witling that "his dog was reckoned one of the most beautiful pointers in the whole country, was very good natured, but had an infernal trick, which destroyed all his good qualities. He never sees a clergyman," continued Sterne, "but he immediately flies at him." "How long may he have had that trick, Sir?" "Ever since he was a puppy." The young man felt the keenness of the satire, turned upon his heel, and left Sterne to enjoy his triumph.

At this time Sterne was possessed of two good livings. In addition to the vicarage of Sutton, where he usually performed divine service on Sunday mornings; in the afternoon he preached at the rectory of Stillington, which he held as one of the prebends of York, in which capacity he also assisted in his turn at the cathedral. He might have lived respectably had not his Rabelaisian spirit immersed him in the gaieties and frivolities of the world.

His wit and humour were already greatly admired within the circle of his acquaintance; but his fame had not yet reached the capital, when the first two volumes of 'Tristram Shandy' made their appearance. They were printed at York, and offered to the booksellers there at a very moderate price; but these gentlemen scarce named the price of paper and print for them. Sterne sold the second edition for six hundred pounds, after being refused fifty pounds for the first impression and proprietorship. The first two volumes of 'Tristram Shandy' were soon in every body's hand: all read, most approved, but few understood them. Those who had not entered into the manner of Rabelais, or the poignant satire of Swift, did not comprehend them; but they joined with the multitude, and pronounced 'Tristram Shandy' a very clever book.

Sterne was now considered as the genius of the age; his company was courted by the great, the witty, and the gay; and it was considered an enviable honour to have passed an evening with the author of 'Tristram Shandy:' even among the clergy the acquaintances he made by this publication were, in many respects, advantageous to him.

His next production consisted of two volumes of sermons, which the critics applauded for the purity and elegance of their style, and the excellence of their morals.

When the third and fourth volumes of 'Tristram Shandy' made their appearance, the public was not quite so eager in purchasing and applauding them as it had been with respect to the first two volumes. The novelty of the style and manner no longer remained; the author's digressions were by many considered as tedious, and his asterisks too obscure. He had, nevertheless, a great number of admirers, and was encouraged to publish a fifth and sixth volume. Their satire was still poignant, spirited, and in general extremely just. The characters, though somewhat overcharged, are lively and natural. His story of *Le Fevre* is highly finished, and truly pathetic; and would alone rescue his name from oblivion. In these volumes, Sterne carries his readers through France, and introduces some scenes and characters which are afterwards taken up in the 'Sentimental Journey,' particularly that of Maria.

It is almost needless to observe of a book so well known as 'Tristram Shandy,' that the story of the hero's life is the least part of the author's concern. It is in reality nothing more than a vehicle for satire on a great variety of subjects. Most of these satirical strokes are introduced with little regard to connection, either with the principal story or with each other. The author having no determined end in view, runs from object to object as they happen to strike a very lively and very irregular imagination. In fact, the book is a perpetual series of disappointments; yet with this and other blemishes, 'Tristram Shandy' has uncommon merit; and in its own line cannot be equalled by any thing, except the writings of the incomparable Montaigne.

As Sterne advanced in literary fame, he left his livings to the care of his curates; and though he acquired a good deal of money by his productions, yet his savings were no greater at the end of the year than when he had no other support but the single vicarage of Sutton. Indeed, his travelling expenses abroad, and the luxurious manner in which he lived with the gay and polite at home, wholly dissipated his means. He died as he lived. A day or two before, he seemed not in the least affected by the prospect of his approaching dissolution. He was buried privately in the burying-ground belonging to the parish of St George's, Hanover-square, attended only by two gentlemen in a mourning coach. His death was announced in the newspapers of March 22d, 1768, by the following paragraph:—"Died at his lodgings in Bond-street, the Rev. Mr Sterne. Alas poor Yorick! I knew him well; a fellow of infinite jest, most excellent fancy, &c.

Wit, humour, genius, hadst thou, all agree;  
One grain of wisdom had been worth the three!"

As Sterne has drawn his own character, under the name of Yorick,



with great happiness and skill, we will take the liberty of introducing it here:—"This is all that ever stagger'd my faith in regard to Yorick's extraction, who, by what I can remember of him, and by all the accounts I could ever get of him, seemed not to have had one single drop of Danish blood in his whole carcase; in nine hundred years it might possibly have all run out. I will not philosophize one moment with you about it; for happen how it would, the fact was this:—That instead of that cold phlegm and exact regularity of sense and humours, you would have looked for in one so extracted, he was, on the contrary, as mercurial and sublimated a composition,—as heteroclite a creature in all his declensions,—with as much life and whim, *gaiete de cœur* about him, as the kindest climate could have engendered and put together. With all this sail, poor Yorick carried not one ounce of ballast; he was utterly unpractised in the world; and, at the age of twenty-six, knew just about as well how to steer his course in it, as a romping and unsuspicious girl of thirteen; so that, upon his first setting out, the brisk gale of his spirits, as you will imagine, ran him foul ten times a day of somebody's tackling; and as the grave and more slow-paced were oftenest in his way,—you may likewise imagine, it was with such he generally had the ill luck to get the most entangled. For aught I know, there might be some mixture of unlucky wit at the bottom of such fracas: for, to speak the truth, Yorick had an invincible delight and opposition in his nature to gravity; not to gravity as such,—for where gravity was wanted, he would be the most grave and serious of mortal men for days and weeks together; but he was an enemy to the affectation of it, and declared open war against it, only as it appeared a cloak for ignorance or for folly; and then, whenever it fell in his way, however sheltered and protected, he seldom gave it much quarter.

"Sometimes in his wild way of talking, he would say, that gravity was an arrant scoundrel; and he would add—of the most dangerous kind too,—because a sly one; and that he verily believed, more honest, well-meaning people were bubbled out of their goods and money by it in one twelvemonth, than by pocket-picking and shop-lifting in seven. In the naked temper which a merry heart discovered, he would say, there was no danger, but to itself; whereas, the very essence of gravity was design, and consequently deceit; 'twas a taught trick to gain credit of the world for more sense and knowledge than a man was worth; and that, with all his pretensions, it was no better, but often worse, than what French wit had long defined it, viz. a mysterious carriage of the body, to cover the defects of the mind. Which definition of gravity, Yorick, with great imprudence, would say, deserved to be wrote in letters of gold.

"But in plain truth, he was a man unhackneyed and unpractised in the world, and was altogether as indiscreet and foolish on every other subject of discourse where policy is wont to impress restraint. Yorick had no impression but one, and that was what arose from the nature of the deed spoken of; which impression he would usually translate into plain English without any periphrasis, and too oft without much distinction of either personages, time or place; so that when mention was made of a pitiful or an ungenerous proceeding, he never gave himself a moment's time to reflect who was the hero of the piece,—what his station, or how far he had power to hurt him hereafter; but it was

a dirty action—without more ado,—the man was a dirty fellow, and so on. And as his comments had usually the ill fate to be terminated either in a *bon mot*, or to be enlivened throughout with some drollery or humour of expression, it gave wings to Yorick's indiscretion. In a word, though he never sought, yet, at the same time, as he seldom shunned occasions of saying what came uppermost, and without much ceremony, he had but too many temptations in life of scattering his wit and his humour, his gibes and his jests about him. They were not lost for want of gathering."

### William Duncombe.

BORN A. D. 1690.—DIED A. D. 1766.

THIS author was the youngest son of John Duncombe, Esq. of Stocks, Hertfordshire. He was privately educated, and in early life obtained a clerkship in the navy office. His first acknowledged production was a translation of the 29th ode of the first book of Horace. In 1721 he published a translation of the 'Carmen Seculare.'

In 1732 he appeared as a dramatic author. His tragedy of 'Lucius Junius Brutus' was brought out at Drury-lane, in the winter of that year, with moderate success. In 1759, with the aid of his son, he completed a translation of Horace, with notes and other apparatus. Besides these works Mr Duncombe wrote a number of miscellaneous pieces, and edited the remains of his brother-in-law, Jabez Hughes, and of Mr Samuel Say, a dissenting minister. He died in 1766.

### James Merrick.

BORN A. D. 1720.—DIED A. D. 1769.

JAMES MERRICK, whom a most competent judge, Bishop Lowth, has characterized as one of the best of men and most eminent of scholars, was born on the 8th of January, 1720. After being opposed, (very unjustly according to his biographer,) as a candidate for a scholarship at St John's, he was entered at Trinity college, Oxford, April 14th, 1736, and admitted a scholar June 6th, 1737. He took the degree of B. A. in December, 1739, of M. A. in November, 1742, and was chosen a probationer-fellow in May, 1744. The celebrated Lord North, and Lord Dartmouth, were his pupils at this college. He entered into holy orders; but never engaged in any parochial duty, being subject to acute pains in his head, frequent lassitude, and feverish complaints; but, from the few manuscript sermons which he left behind him, he appears to have preached occasionally in 1747, 1748, and 1749. His life was chiefly passed in study and literary correspondence; and much of his time and property were employed on acts of benevolence. Few men have been mentioned with higher praise by all who knew him. He died after a short illness at Reading, where he had principally resided, on the 5th of January, 1769; and was buried at Caversham church, near the remains of his father, mother, and brothers.

Mr Merrick early commenced his career as an author. In 1734, while he was yet at school, he published 'Messiah, a Divine essay;' and in April, 1739, before he was twenty years of age, he was engaged in a correspondence with the learned Reimarus. The imprimatur from the vice-chancellor, prefixed to his translation of Tryphiodorus, is dated October 26, 1739, before he had taken his bachelor's degree. In Alberti's last volume of Hesychius, published by Ruhnkenius, are many references to Mr Merrick's notes on Tryphiodorus, which are all ingenious, and serve to illustrate the Greek writer by historical and critical explanations; many of them have a reference to the New Testament, and show how early the author had turned his thoughts to sacred criticism. The translation itself is correct and truly poetical. It is indeed, for his years, a very extraordinary proof of classical erudition and taste, and was deservedly supported by a more numerous list of subscribers than perhaps any work of the time. It was handsomely printed in an 8vo. volume, at the Clarendon press, but without date or publisher's name.

The rest of Mr Merrick's works were published in the following order: 1. 'A Dissertation on Proverbs, chapter ix. containing occasional remarks on other passages in sacred and profane writers,' 1744, 4to. 2. 'Prayers for a time of Earthquakes and violent Floods,' a small tract, printed at London in 1756, when the earthquake at Lisbon had made a very serious impression on the public mind. 3. 'An encouragement to a good life; particularly addressed to some soldiers quartered at Reading,' 1759. 4. 'Poems on Sacred subjects,' Oxford, 1763, 4to. 5. 'A Letter to the Rev. Joseph Warton, chiefly relating to the composition of Greek indexes,' Reading, 1764. In this letter are mentioned many indexes to Greek authors, some of which were then begun, and others completed. Mr Robert Robinson, in the preface to his 'Indices Tres,' of words in Longinus, Eunapius, and Hierocles, printed at the Clarendon press in 1772, mentions these as composed by the advice of Mr Merrick, by whose recommendation to the delegates of the press they were printed at the expense of the university; and they rewarded the compiler with a very liberal present. 6. 'Annotations, critical and grammatical, on chapter 1, verses 1 to 14 of the Gospel according to St John,' Reading, 1764, 8vo. 7. 'Annotations, critical, &c. on the Gospel of St John, to the end of the third chapter,' Reading, 1767, 8vo. 8. 'The Psalms translated, or paraphrased, in English verse,' Reading, 1765. Of this, which is esteemed the best poetical English version of the Psalms now extant, the only defect was, that not being divided into stanzas, it could not be set to music for parochial use. This objection was removed, after the author's death, by the Rev. W. D. Tattersall. 9. 'Annotations on the Psalms,' Reading, 1768, 4to. 10. 'A Manual of Prayers for common occasions,' *ibid.* 1768, 12mo. Mr Merrick occasionally composed several small poems, some of which are inserted in 'Dodsley's Collection;' and some of his classical effusions may be found among the Oxford gratulatory poems of 1761 and 1762. In the second volume of the 'Museum,' is the Benedicite paraphrased by him.

## Alexander Monro, M. D.

BORN A. D. 1697.—DIED A. D. 1767.

THIS eminent anatomist, the father of the anatomical school of Edinburgh, was descended, both by his paternal and maternal parents, from distinguished families in the north of Scotland. He was born in London, in September, 1697, where his father, then a surgeon in the army of King William in Flanders, resided upon leave of absence. On quitting the army, Mr Monro settled in Edinburgh; and perceiving early indications of talent in his son Alexander, he gave him the best instruction which Edinburgh then afforded, and afterwards sent him to London, where he attended the anatomical courses of Cheselden. He then pursued his studies successively at Paris and Leyden, where his industry and promising talents recommended him to the particular notice of Boerhaave. On his return to Edinburgh, in the autumn of 1719, he was appointed professor and demonstrator of anatomy to the company of surgeons, the joint demonstrators having spontaneously resigned in his favour, and soon after began also to give public lectures on anatomy, aided by the many preparations which he had made when abroad. At the same time Dr Alston, then a young man, united with him in the plan, and began a course of lectures on the materia medica and botany. These courses may be regarded as the opening of that medical school, which has since extended its fame, not only throughout Europe, but over the New world. Mr Monro, senior, anxious for his son's honour, without the young teacher's knowledge, had invited the president and fellows of the college of Physicians, and the whole company of surgeons, to honour the first day's lecture with their presence. This unexpected audience threw the doctor into such confusion, that he forgot the words of the discourse, which he had written and committed to memory. Having left his papers at home, he was at a loss for a little time what to do: but, with much presence of mind, he immediately began to show some of the anatomical preparations, in order to gain time for recollection; and finally resolved not to attempt to repeat the discourse which he had prepared, but to express himself in such language as should occur to him from the subject, which he was confident he understood. The experiment succeeded: he delivered himself well, and gained great applause as a good and ready speaker. Thus discovering his own strength, he resolved henceforth never to recite any written discourse in teaching, and acquired a free and elegant style of delivering lectures.

In the same year, 1720, a regular series of medical instruction was instituted at Edinburgh; and through the interest of Dr Monro's father, these two lectureships were put upon the university-establishment, to which were soon after added those of Drs Sinclair, Rutherford, Innes, and Plummer. This system of medical education was, however, incomplete, without affording some opportunity to the students of witnessing the progress and treatment of diseases, as well as of hearing lectures. A proposal was, therefore, made to erect and endow an hospital by subscription; and Dr Monro published a pamphlet explaining the advantages of such an institution. The royal infirmary was speedily

raised, endowed, and established by charter; and the institution of clinical lectures—which were commenced by Dr Monro on the surgical cases, and afterwards by Dr Rutherford, in 1748, on the medical cases—completed that admirable system of instruction, upon which the reputation and usefulness of the medical school of Edinburgh were subsequently founded.

Dr Monro, who was indefatigable in the labours of his office, soon made himself known to the professional world by a variety of ingenious and valuable publications. His first and principal publication was his 'Osteology, or Treatise on the Anatomy of the Bones,' which appeared in 1726, and passed through eight editions during his life, and was translated into most of the languages of Europe. To the later editions of this work he subjoined a concise neurology, or description of the nerves, and a very accurate account of the lacteal system and thoracic duct.

Dr Monro was also the father and active supporter of a society which was established by the professors and other practitioners of the town, for the purpose of collecting and publishing papers on professional subjects, and to which the public is indebted for six volumes of 'Medical Essays and Observations by a Society at Edinburgh,' the first of which appeared in 1732. Dr Monro was the secretary of this society; and after the publication of the first volume, when the members of the society became remiss in their attendance, the whole labour of collection and publication was carried on by himself; "insomuch that after this," says his biographer, "scarce any other member ever saw a paper of the five last volumes, except those they were the authors of, till printed copies were sent them by the bookseller." Of this collection, many of the most valuable papers were written by Dr Monro, on anatomical, physiological, and practical subjects: the most elaborate of these is an 'Essay on the Nutrition of the Fœtus,' in three dissertations. Haller, speaking of these volumes as highly valuable to the profession, adds, "Monrous ibi eminent."

After the conclusion of this publication, the society was revived, at the suggestion of the celebrated mathematical professor, Colin Maclaurin, and was extended to the admission of literary and philosophical topics. Dr Monro again took an active part in its proceedings, as one of its vice-presidents, especially after the death of Maclaurin, when two volumes of its memoirs, entitled 'Essays Physical and Literary,' were published, and some materials for a third collected, to which Dr Monro contributed several useful papers. The third was not published during his life. His last publication was an 'Account of the Success of Inoculation in Scotland,' written originally as an answer to some inquiries addressed to him from the committee of the faculty of physicians at Paris appointed to investigate the merits of the practice. It was afterwards published at the request of some of his friends, and contributed to extend the practice in Scotland. Besides the works which he published, he left several MSS. written at different times, of which the following are the principal, viz. 'A History of Anatomical Writers,'—'An Encheiresis Anatomica,'—'Heads of many of his Lectures,'—'A Treatise on Comparative Anatomy,'—'A Treatise on Wounds and Tumours,'—and 'An Oration de Cuticula.' This last, as well as the short tract on comparative anatomy, was inserted in an edition of his

whole works, in one volume quarto, published by his son, Dr Alexander Monro, at Edinburgh, in 1781. The tract had been published surreptitiously in 1744, from notes taken at his lectures; but is here given in a more correct form.

In 1759 Dr Monro resigned the anatomical chair, which he had so long occupied with the highest reputation, in favour of his son; but he still continued to lecture as one of the clinical professors on the cases in the infirmary. His life was also a scene of continued activity in other affairs, as long as his health permitted: for he was not only a member, but a most assiduous attendant, of many societies and institutions for promoting literature, arts, sciences, and manufactures in Scotland. Dr Monro was a man of middle stature, muscular, and possessed of great strength and activity, but was subject for many years to a spitting of blood on catching the least cold, and through his life to frequent inflammatory fevers. After an attack of the influenza in 1762, he was afflicted with symptoms of a disease of a painful and tedious nature, a fungous ulcer of the bladder and rectum, the distress of which he bore with great fortitude and resignation, and died with perfect calmness on the 10th of July, 1767, at the age of seventy.

### Mark Akenside.

BORN A. D. 1721.—DIED A. D. 1770.

MARK AKENSIDE was the son of a respectable Newcastle butcher. His parents were dissenters, and placed their son for some time under the care of a Mr Wilson, a dissenting minister, from whose academy he was sent, in his eighteenth year, to the university of Edinburgh, with the view of completing his studies for the dissenting ministry.

The wishes of his parents were ultimately frustrated by the young man exhibiting a decided preference for the medical profession above that of theology. He was, however, very properly allowed to follow the bent of his own inclinations, and ultimately graduated at Leyden in Holland. His thesis, on this occasion, was remarkably well-written, and attracted considerable attention; yet it appears that his ambition ranged somewhat higher than the practice of surgery and physic, when he first ostensibly devoted himself to the study of these arts. Stewart, in his 'Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind,' says, "There are various passages in Akenside's works which will be read with additional pleasure when it is known, that they were not entirely suggested by fancy. I allude to those passages where he betrays a secret consciousness of powers adapted to a higher station of life than fell to his lot. Akenside, when a medical student at Edinburgh, was a member of the Medical society, then recently formed, and was eminently distinguished by the eloquence which he displayed in the course of the debates. Dr Robertson, who was at that time a student of divinity in the same university, told me that he was frequently led to attend their meetings, chiefly to hear the speeches of Akenside, the great object of whose ambition then was a seat in parliament; a situation which, he was sanguine enough to flatter himself, he had some prospect

of obtaining, and for which he conceived his talents to be much better adapted than for the profession he had chosen."

Akenside's poetical genius had early begun to develop itself. At the age of sixteen, he was a poetical contributor to the 'Gentleman's Magazine;' and he seems to have already sketched the outline of his great didactic poem before he went to Leyden. Soon after his return to England, he completed the manuscript of his 'Pleasures of Imagination,' and offered the copyright to Dodsley for £120. The bibliopole was a little startled at the price demanded by so young an author; but on carrying the manuscript to Pope, he was advised "to make no niggardly offer, since this was no every-day writer," and immediately acted upon the advice. The poem was published anonymously, but was very favourably received both in this country and on the continent. Of course he did not altogether escape censure, and amongst the dissatisfied was the poet Gray, who, in a letter to a correspondent, writes thus disparagingly of it: "To show you that I am a judge, as well as my countrymen, I will tell you, though I have rather turned it over than read it, (but no matter; no more have they,) that it seems to me above the middling; and now and then, for a little while, rises even to the best, particularly in description. It is often obscure, and even unintelligible, and too much infected with the Hutchinsonian jargon. In short, its great fault is, that it was published at least nine years too early; and so, methinks, in a few words, *à la mode de Temple*, I have very pertly despatched what, perhaps, may for several years have employed a very ingenious man, worthy fifty of myself."

For some years, to use the words of one of his biographers, "Akenside was well-known as a poet, but he had still to make himself known as a physician." The truth is, he possessed too much independence of mind to have recourse to those artifices by which medical men in too many instances contrive to creep into practice; and but for the generous and steady friendship of a college friend, Mr Dyson, he would soon have been reduced to very great straits for the means of livelihood. Dyson was a man of fortune, and moved in the upper circles; and he at last succeeded in introducing his friend to a competent practice.

In July, 1755, Akenside read the Gulstonian lectures before the college of physicians. In these prelections he advanced certain opinions relative to the lymphatics, in opposition to those of Boerhaave which had so long ruled in the medical world. This led to a controversy with Dr Alexander Monro, the celebrated professor of anatomy in Edinburgh, who charged Akenside with plagiarism from him, but, we think, failed to make good the charge. In January, 1759, Akenside was appointed assistant-physician to St Thomas's hospital, and two months after principal physician. In 1764, he published his principal professional work, 'De Dysenteria Commentarius.' After this period he wrote and published little; being now in high practice, the duties of his profession occupied the greater part of his time. He died in the midst of a highly active and useful career, on the 23d of June, 1770.

"The features of Akenside," says his recent biographer, Mr Bucke, "were expressive and manly in a very high degree; but his complexion was pale, and his deportment solemn. He dressed too in a very precise manner, and wore a powdered wig in stiff curl. In respect to disposition, he is said to have been irritable, and to have had little re-

straint upon his temper before strangers ; with whom he was precise and ceremonious, stiff, and occasionally sententious and dictatorial. \* \* \* He had a high sense of his own merits ; and when persons of an inferior cast presumed upon their ignorance, or want of good breeding, to intrude their observations too uncereemoniously, Akenside seldom denied himself the satisfaction of chastising their presumption by the adoption of a manner, perhaps too severe, satirical, and splenetic. But in the society of those mild and gentle spirits who admired his genius, and respected his virtues, he was kindness itself. His language flowed chastely, gracefully, and eloquently ; and his varied knowledge, argumentative reasonings, and nice distinctions,—his fine appreciation of philosophical allusions, and keen relish for the beauties of creation,—would display themselves in pure and copious streams of eloquence, never, perhaps, surpassed by the greatest masters of social life the world ever knew. His memory was at once discriminative and comprehensive. He retained all the riches of art, science, and history, legislation, poetry, and philosophy ; and these he would draw out and embody to suit the occasion required, in a manner not more wonderful to those who were partially informed, than delightful to those who could follow his track, and continue with him to the end. Yet he is said to have, in general, wanted gaiety of heart in society. He was naturally of a cheerful temper ; but his cheerfulness was accompanied by a mellowness of feeling which sometimes relapsed into melancholy. Not that corrosive melancholy, however, which unstrings the mind, and renders it incapable of life and action ; but of that sweet and delightful nature, which Dyer has so beautifully characterized in his ‘ Ruins of Rome.

————— “ ‘ There is a mood  
(I sing not to the vacant or the young,)  
There is a kindly mood of melancholy,  
That wings the soul, and points her to the skies.’ ”

Akenside is a poet by no means of the highest order of genius. His taste is unexceptionable, and his verse mellifluent ; but he has little originality ; his enthusiasm seems all to have been caught at second hand from the authors he was chiefly conversant with. It was his intention to have remodelled and nearly rewritten his principal poem, ‘ The Pleasures of Imagination ;’ and he had proceeded some length in the execution of this design. “ Soon after the publication of the Pleasures of Imagination, Akenside,” says Mr Dyson, “ became conscious that it wanted revision and correction ; but so quick was the demand for successive editions, that in any of the intervals to have completed the whole of his corrections was impossible. He chose, therefore, to continue reprinting it without any corrections or improvements, until he should be able at once to give them to the public complete ; and with this view he went on, for several years, to review and correct his poem at leisure, till at length he found the task grow so much upon his hands, that despairing ever being able to execute it to his own satisfaction, he abandoned the purpose of correcting, and resolved to write the poem over anew, upon a somewhat different and enlarged plan ; and in the execution of this design he had made a considerable progress.” He printed the first and second books for his own private use, and tran-



scribed a considerable portion of the third book, in order to its being printed in the same manner; "and to these," continues Mr Dyson, "he added the introduction to a subsequent book, which in MS. is called the fourth, and which appears to have been composed at the time, when the author intended to comprise the whole in four books; but as he afterwards determined to distribute the poem into more books, might, perhaps, more properly be called the last book. This," continues Mr Dyson, "is all that is executed of the new work; which, although it appeared to the editor too valuable, even in its imperfect state, to be withholden from the public, yet, he conceives, takes in by much too small a part of the original poem to supply its place, and to supersede the republication of it." Hazlitt prefers the revised version, so far as it goes, to the original; but there are few, we think, who will agree with him in taste on this point.

### John Dollond.

BORN A. D. 1706.—DIED A. D. 1761.

JOHN DOLLOND, an eminent optician, and the inventor of the achromatic telescope, was born in Spitalfields, June 10th, 1706. His parents were French protestants, and at the time of the revocation of the edict of Nantz, in 1685, resided in Normandy, but in what particular part cannot now be ascertained. M. de Lalande does not believe the name to be of French origin; but however this may be, the family were compelled, soon after this period, to seek refuge in England, in order to avoid persecution, and to preserve their religion. The fate of this family was not a solitary case; fifty thousand persons were compelled to exile themselves; and we may date from this period the rise of several arts and manufactures which have become highly beneficial to this country. An establishment was given to these refugees, by the wise policy of our government, in Spitalfields, and particular encouragement granted to the silk manufacture.

The first years of Mr Dollond's life were employed at the loom; but being of a very studious and philosophic turn of mind, his leisure hours were engaged in mathematical pursuits; and though by the death of his father, which happened in his infancy, his education gave way to the necessities of his family, yet at the age of fifteen, before he had an opportunity of seeing works of science or elementary treatises, he amused himself by constructing sun-dials, drawing geometrical schemes, and solving problems. An early marriage and an increasing family afforded him little opportunity of pursuing his favourite studies: but such are the powers of the human mind when called into action, that difficulties, which appear to the casual observer insurmountable, yield and retire before perseverance and genius; even under the pressure of a close application to business for the support of his family, he found time, by abridging the hours of his rest, to extend his mathematical knowledge, and made a considerable proficiency in optics and astronomy, to which he now principally devoted his attention, having, in the earlier stages of his life, prepared himself for the higher parts of those subjects by a perfect knowledge of algebra and geometry.

He designed his eldest son, Peter Dollond, for the same business with himself; and for several years they carried on their manufactures together in Spittalfields; but the employment neither suited the expectations nor disposition of the son, who, having received much information upon mathematical and philosophical subjects from the instruction of his father, and observing the great value which was set upon his father's knowledge in the theory of optics by professional men, determined to apply that knowledge to the benefit of himself and his family; and, accordingly, under the directions of his father, commenced optician. Success, though under the most unfavourable circumstances, attended every effort; and in 1752, John Dollond, embracing the opportunity of pursuing a profession congenial with his mind, and without neglecting the rules of prudence towards his family, joined his son, and in consequence of his theoretical knowledge, soon became a proficient in the practical parts of optics.

His first attention was directed to improve the combination of the eye-glasses of refracting telescopes; and having succeeded in his system of four eye-glasses, he proceeded one step further, and produced telescopes furnished with five eye-glasses, which considerably surpassed the former; and of which he gave a particular account in a paper presented to the Royal society, and which was read on March 1st, 1753, and printed in the 'Philosophical Transactions,' vol. xlviii. Soon after this he made a very useful improvement in Mr Savery's micrometer; for, instead of employing two entire eye-glasses, as Mr Savery and M. Bouguer had done, he used only one glass cut into two equal parts, one of them sliding or moving laterally by the other. This was considered to be a great improvement, as the micrometer could now be applied to the reflecting telescope with much advantage, and which Mr James Short immediately did. An account of the same was given to the Royal society in two papers, which were afterwards printed in the 'Philosophical Transactions,' vol. xlviii. This kind of micrometer was afterwards applied by Mr Peter Dollond to the achromatic telescope, as appears by a letter of his to Mr Short, which was read in the Royal society, February 7th, 1765.

Mr Dollond's celebrity in optics became now universal; and the friendship and protection of the most eminent men of science, flattered and encouraged his pursuits. To enumerate the persons, both at home and abroad, who distinguished him by their correspondence, or cultivated his acquaintance, however honourable to his memory, would be only an empty praise. Yet among those who held the highest place in his esteem as men of worth and learning, may be mentioned, Mr Thomas Simpson, master of the royal academy at Woolwich; Mr Harris, assaymaster at the Tower, who was at that time engaged in writing and publishing his 'Treatise on Optics;' the Rev. Dr Bradley, then astronomer-royal; the Rev. William Ludlam, of St John's college, Cambridge; and Mr John Canton, a most ingenious man, and celebrated not less for his knowledge in natural philosophy, than for his neat and accurate manner of making philosophical experiments. To this catalogue of the philosophical names of those days, we may add that of the late venerable astronomer-royal, the Rev. Dr Maskelyne, whose labours have so eminently benefited the science of astronomy.

Surrounded by these enlightened men, in a state of mind prepared

for the severest investigation of philosophic truths, and in circumstances favourable to liberal inquiry, Mr Dollond engaged in the discussion of a subject, which at that time not only interested this country, but all Europe. Sir Isaac Newton had declared, in his 'Treatise on Optics,' p. 112, "That all refracting substances diverged the prismatic colours in a constant proportion to their mean refraction," and drew this conclusion, "that refraction could not be produced without colour," and consequently, "that no improvement could be expected in the refracting telescope." No one doubted the accuracy with which Sir Isaac Newton had made the experiment; yet some men, particularly M. Euler and others, were of opinion that the conclusion which Newton had drawn from it went too far, and maintained that in very small angles refraction might be obtained without colour. Mr Dollond was not of that opinion, but defended Newton's doctrine with much learning and ingenuity, as may be seen by a reference to the letters which passed between Euler and Dollond upon that occasion, and which were published in the 'Philosophical Transactions,' vol. xlviii.; and contended, that, "if the result of the experiment had been as described by Sir Isaac Newton, there could not be refraction without colour."

A mind constituted like Mr Dollond's, could not remain satisfied with arguing in this manner, from an experiment made by another, but determined to try it himself, and accordingly, in 1757, began the examination; and, to use his own words, with "a resolute perseverance," continued during that year, and a great part of the next, to bestow his whole mind on the subject, until in June, 1758, he found, after a complete course of experiments, the result to be very different from that which he expected, and from that which Sir Isaac Newton had related. He discovered "the difference in the dispersion of the colours of light, when the mean rays are equally refracted by different mediums." The discovery was complete, and he immediately drew from it this practical conclusion, "that the object-glasses of refracting telescopes were capable of being made without the images formed by them being affected by the different refrangibility of the rays of light." His account of this experiment, and of others connected with it, was given to the Royal society, and printed in their 'Transactions,' vol. L., and he was presented in the same year by that learned body, with Sir Godfrey Copley's medal, as a reward of his merit, and a memorial of the discovery, though not at that time a member of the society. This discovery no way affected the points in dispute between Euler and Dollond, respecting the doctrine advanced by Sir Isaac Newton. A new principle was in a manner found out, which had no part in their former reasonings, and it was reserved for the accuracy of Dollond to have the honour of making a discovery which had eluded the observation of the immortal Newton. The cause of this difference of the results of the eighth experiment of the second part of the first book of Newton's Optics, as related by himself, and as it was found when tried by Dollond in 1757 and 1758, is fully and ingeniously accounted for by Mr Peter Dollond in a paper read at the Royal society, March 21st, 1789, and afterwards published in a pamphlet.

This new principle being now established, he was soon able to construct object-glasses, in which the different refrangibility of the rays of light was corrected, and the name of achromatic was given to them by

the late Dr Bevis, on account of their being free from the prismatic colours, and not by Lalande, as some have said. As usually happens on such occasions, no sooner was the achromatic telescope made public, than the rivalry of foreigners, and the jealousy of philosophers at home, led them to doubt of its reality; and Euler himself, in his paper read before the academy of sciences at Berlin, in 1764, says, "I am not ashamed frankly to avow that the first accounts which were published of it appeared so suspicious, and even so contrary to the best established principles, that I could not prevail upon myself to give credit to them;" and he adds, "I should never have submitted to the proofs which Mr Dollond produced to support this strange phenomenon, if M. Clairaut, who must at first have been equally surprised at it, had not most positively assured me that Dollond's experiments were but too well founded." And when the fact could be no longer disputed, they endeavoured to find a prior inventor, to whom it might be ascribed; and several conjecturers were honoured with the title of discoverers. But Mr Peter Dollond, in the paper we have just mentioned, has stated and vindicated, in the most unexceptionable and convincing manner, his father's right to the first discovery of this improvement in refracting telescopes, as well as of the principle on which it was founded. In so doing he has corrected the mistakes of M. de la Lande in his account of this subject; those of M. N. Fuss, professor of mathematics at St Petersburg, in his 'Eulogy on Euler,' written and published in 1783; and those of Count Cassini, in his 'Extracts of the Observations made at the Royal Observatory at Paris in the year 1787;' and it must appear to every impartial and candid examiner, that Mr Dollond was the sole discoverer of the principle which led to the improvement of refracting telescopes.

This improvement was of the greatest advantage in astronomy, as they have been applied to fixed instruments; by which the motions of the heavenly bodies are determined to a much greater exactness than by the means of the old telescope. Navigation has also been much benefited by applying achromatic telescopes to the Hadley's Sextant; and from the improved state of the lunar tables, and of that instrument, the longitude at sea may now be determined by good observers, to a great degree of accuracy; and their universal adoption by the navy and army, as well as by the public in general, is the best proof of the great utility of the discovery.

In the beginning of 1761, Mr Dollond was elected F. R. S. and appointed optician to his majesty, but did not live to enjoy these honours long; for, on November 30th, in the same year, as he was reading a new publication of M. Clairaut, on the theory of the moon, and on which he had been intently engaged for several hours, he was seized with apoplexy, which rendered him immediately speechless, and occasioned his death in a few hours afterwards.

## Tobias Smollett.

BORN A. D. 1721.—DIED A. D. 1771.

TOBIAS SMOLLETT was born in the year 1721 at Dalquhurn within two miles of Renton in Dumbartonshire, Scotland. He was the grandson of Sir James Smollett of Bonhill, one of the Scottish commissioners for the Union. He appears to have received a classical education, and was bred to the practice of physic and surgery. At the age of eighteen he wrote a tragedy entitled 'The Regicide,' founded on the story of the assassination of James I. of Scotland; which was afterwards altered and improved, and published by subscription. He was some time on board a ship-of-war, as surgeon or surgeon's mate; and was present at the siege of Carthage in 1741. His connection with the navy seems not to have been of very long continuance. He came to London in 1746, and applied himself to literary pursuits: he is supposed to have written several pieces before he became known to the public by his more considerable productions. In 1746 he published a satire called 'Advice;' and in the following year another, which he entitled 'Reproof.' In the former he also wrote a poem, to which he gave the title of 'The Tears of Scotland,' and in which he expressed his indignation at the severities which were exercised upon his countrymen, and the ravages which were committed in Scotland after the battle of Culloden, and the suppression of the rebellion. His friends wished him to suppress this piece, but he refused to listen to their advice. Soon after this he wrote an opera for Covent Garden theatre, which, however, in consequence of some dispute with the manager, was neither acted nor printed.

In 1748 Smollett published his famous novel of 'Roderick Random,' which had an extensive sale, and procured him a considerable degree of reputation. It is said that some of the incidents of his own life, particularly the earlier part of it, and some real characters among his acquaintances are introduced into this work. In 1752 he published 'The Adventures of Peregrine Pickle.' He introduced into this book, by way of episode, some of the adventures of the profligate Lady Vane. In this work he endeavoured to ridicule Dr Akenside, in his description of the entertainment given by the Republican doctor, "after the manner of the ancients." Smollett appears to have conceived a dislike to Akenside on account of the difference of their political sentiments. Akenside was an ardent friend to liberty; while the principles of Smollett were more congenial to those of the tories and the Jacobites. He also introduced Garrick and Quin with the view of exposing them to ridicule.

In 1752 he published 'An Essay on the External use of Water, in a Letter to Dr ——, with particular Remarks upon the present Method of using the Mineral Waters at Bath, in Somersetshire, and a Plan for rendering them more safe, agreeable, and efficacious.' Smollett had now taken the degree of doctor of physic; but from what university he received his diploma, or in what year, we have met with no account. About this time he attempted to settle as a practitioner

of physic at Bath; and it was with this view that he wrote his piece on the Bath waters. But at Bath he was unsuccessful; it is said that the chief reason of this was, that he could not render himself agreeable to the women, though he possessed a very handsome and graceful person. Abandoning physic, therefore, altogether as a profession, he fixed his residence at Chelsea, and turned his thoughts entirely to writing and translating. He published translations of 'Gil Blas' and of 'Don Quixote,' both of which were well-executed and well-received. He has himself given a sketch of his establishment at Chelsea in his 'Humphrey Clinker.' It was while residing there, that he published his 'Adventures of Count Fathom.' In 1757, he published his 'History of England,' which was first printed in 8vo. It had a great sale; so that he is said to have received £2000 for writing the 'History and the Continuation.' This work is often deficient in impartiality, and many instances of misrepresentation occur in it; but some parts of it are much superior to others, and it has considerable merit in point of style.

In 1755 he set on foot 'The Critical Review,' and continued the principal manager of it till he went abroad in the year 1763. As he was apt to be somewhat acrimonious in his censures of other writers, and was generally known to be the conductor of this literary journal, he became engaged in several disputes with Shebbeare, Granger, and others. Among other controversies in which this publication involved him, the most material in its consequences was that which was occasioned by his remarks on a pamphlet published by Admiral Knowles. That gentleman, in defence of his conduct in the expedition to Rochfort, had published a vindication of himself, which, falling under the doctor's examination, produced some very severe strictures both on the performance as well as on the character of the writer of it. The admiral immediately commenced a prosecution against the printer; declaring, at the same time, that he desired only to be informed who the writer was, that, if he proved to be a gentleman, he might obtain the satisfaction of one from him. In this affair the doctor behaved with prudence and spirit. Desirous of compromising the dispute with the admiral in an amicable manner, he applied to his friend Wilkes to interpose his good offices. The admiral, however, continued inflexible; and just as sentence was going to be pronounced against the printer, the doctor came into court, avowed himself the author of the strictures, and declared himself ready to give Mr Knowles any satisfaction he chose. The admiral immediately commenced a fresh action against the doctor, who was found guilty, fined £100, and condemned to three months' imprisonment in the King's Bench. It was there he is said to have written 'The Adventures of Sir Launcelot Greaves,' in which he has described some remarkable characters, then his fellow-prisoners.

From the commencement of the Review, Dr Smollett was always considered as the principal author and conductor of it. On the publication of the 'Roscian,' the author, considering himself and some of his friends to have been very injuriously treated in the review of that work, and imagining Smollett the author of the offensive article, retorted with great spirit in a poem entitled 'An Apology to the Critical Reviewers.' It appears however he was mistaken in his suspicion.

In 1762, when the Earl of Bute was first lord of the treasury, that nobleman found it necessary to employ some able writers to vindicate

his administration, and to palliate and defend the steps which had led to his advancement. Amongst others Smollett was pitched upon; and in defence of his patron he commenced a weekly paper, which he called 'The Briton.' The first number made its appearance on the 29th of May, 1762, and was immediately followed by the publication of 'The North Briton,' which in the end entirely routed his antagonist, and put an end to the friendship which subsisted between Smollett and Wilkes. 'The Briton' continued to be published till the 12th of February, 1763, when it was given up. The Earl of Bute did so little for his advocate that Smollett afterwards satirized him, as well as some other political characters, in his 'Adventures of an Atom.'

Smollett's constitution being at length much impaired by a sedentary life, and assiduous application to study, he went abroad for his health in the month of June, 1763, and continued in France and Italy two years. He wrote an account of his travels in a series of letters to some friends, which were published in two volumes, 8vo, in 1766. These letters are evidently the production of a man of genius, and possess no inconsiderable degree of merit; but during his stay abroad he appears to have been almost constantly under the influence of chagrin, and of ill health; and was much inclined to speak unfavourably of the persons that he met with, and the places through which he passed. Before he quitted the kingdom, he found, in the road to Dover, that "the chambers were in general cold and comfortless, the beds paltry, the cookery execrable, the wine poison, the attendance bad, the publicans insolent, and the bills extortion," and that there was "not a drop of tolerable malt liquor to be had from London to Dover." When he arrived at Dover, he discovered, that, "without all doubt, a man could not be much worse lodged and worse treated in any part of Europe; nor would he in any other place meet with more flagrant instances of fraud, imposition, and brutality." He met with similar evils in other places, and it was to this cynical relation of his travels, that Sterne is supposed to have alluded in the following passage of his 'Sentimental Journey.' "The learned Smelfungus travelled from Bologne to Paris—from Paris to Rome—and so on—but he set out with the spleen and jaundice, and every object he passed by was discoloured and distorted. He wrote an account of them, but it was nothing but an account of his miserable feelings. I met Smelfungus in the grand portico of the Pantheon—he was just coming out of it—'It is nothing but a huge cockpit,' said he. 'I wish you had said nothing worse of the Venus of Medicis,' replied I,—for in passing through Florence I had heard he had fallen foul upon the goddess, and used her worse than a common strumpet, without the least provocation in nature. I popped upon Smelfungus again at Turin, in his return home, and sad tale of sorrowful adventures had he to tell, wherein he spoke of moving accidents by flood and field, and of the cannibals which eat each other, the Anthropophagi. He had been flayed alive, and bedeviled, and worse used than St Bartholomew, at every stage he had come at. 'I'll tell it,' cried Smelfungus, 'to the world!' 'You had better tell it,' said I, 'to your physician.'"

Smollett returned from Italy to England; but finding his health continue to decline, and meeting with fresh mortifications and disappointments, he went back to Italy, where he died on the 21st of October, 1771, near Leghorn.

Besides the pieces already mentioned, Smollett was the author of sundry small poems, and of a dramatic piece called 'The Reprisals, or the Tars of Old England,' which was acted with applause at Drury-lane theatre.

Smollett was a man of very considerable abilities and varied talents. It has been remarked, that there is "a very obvious similitude between the characters of the three heroes of the doctor's chief productions: Roderick Random, Peregrine Pickle, and Matthew Bramble, are all brothers of the same family. The same satirical, cynical disposition, the same generosity and benevolence, are the distinguishing and characteristic features of all three; but they are far from being servile copies or imitations of each other. They differ as much as the Ajax, Diomed, and Achilles, of Homer. This was undoubtedly a greater effort of genius; and the doctor seems to have described his own character at the different stages and situations of his life."

### Christopher Smart.

BORN A. D. 1722.—DIED A. D. 1770.

CHRISTOPHER SMART was born at Shipbourne, in Kent. In 1739 he was admitted of Pembroke hall, Cambridge, where he brought himself into notice by the excellence of his Tripos verses. In 1745 he was elected a fellow of his hall. The Seatonian prize was adjudged to him four times successively. He also wrote a considerable number of miscellaneous and some dramatic pieces.

"Though the fortune," says his biographer, "as well as the constitution of Mr Smart, required the utmost care, he was equally negligent in the management of both, and his various and repeated embarrassments acting upon an imagination uncommonly fervid, produced temporary alienations of mind; which at last were attended with paroxysms so violent and continued as to render confinement necessary. In this melancholy state, his family, for he had now two children, must have been much embarrassed in their circumstances, but for the kind friendship and assistance of Mr Newbery. Many other of Mr Smart's acquaintance were likewise forward in their services; and particularly Dr Samuel Johnson, who, on the first approaches of Mr Smart's malady, wrote several papers for a periodical publication in which that gentleman was concerned, to secure his claim to a share in the profits of it." The publication alluded to, was the 'Universal Visitor and Memorialist,' published by Gardner, a bookseller in the Strand. Smart, and Rolt, a political writer, are said to have entered into an engagement to write for this magazine, and for no other work whatever; for this they were to have a third of the profits, and the contract was to be binding for ninety-nine years. In Boswell's 'Life of Johnson,' we find this contract discussed with more gravity than it seems to deserve. It was probably a contrivance of Gardner's to secure the services of two irregular men for a certain period. Johnson, however, wrote a few papers for our poet, "not then," he added, "knowing the terms on which Smart was engaged to write, and thinking I was doing him good. I hoped his wits would soon return to him. Mine returned to me, and



I wrote in the 'Universal Visitor' no longer." The publication ceased in about two years from its commencement.

In 1763 he published his 'Song to David,'—a composition remarkable for its alternate magnificence and meanness, indicating the state of the composer's mind.

In his intervals of health and regularity he still continued to write, and although he perhaps formed too high an opinion of his effusions, he spared no labour when employed by the booksellers, and formed, in conjunction with them, many schemes of literary industry which he did not live to accomplish. In 1765 he published 'A Poetical Translation of the Fables of Phædrus,' with the appendix of Godius, and an accurate original text on the opposite page. This translation appears to be executed with neatness and fidelity, but has never become popular. His 'Translation of the Psalms,' which followed in the same year, affords a melancholy proof of want of judgment and decay of powers. Many of his psalms scarcely rise above the level of Sternhold and Hopkins, and they had the additional disadvantage of appearing at the same time with Merrick's more correct and chaste translation. In 1767 he republished his Horace with a metrical translation, in which, although we find abundance of inaccuracies, irregular rhymes, and redundancies, there are some passages conceived in the true spirit of the original. His last publication in 1768 exhibited a more striking proof of want of judgment than any of his other performances. It was entitled 'The Parables of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ; done into familiar verse, with occasional applications for the use of younger minds.' This was dedicated to Master Bonnel George Thornton, a child of three years old, and is written in that species of verse which would be tolerated only in the nursery. In what manner he lived during his latter years, his biographer has not informed us; but at length he was confined for debt in the king's bench prison. Here he died after a short illness occasioned by a disorder in his liver, May 18th, 1770.

### John Harrison.

BORN A. D. 1693.—DIED A. D. 1776.

JOHN HARRISON was the son of Henry Harrison, carpenter and joiner, and was born in the latter end of May, 1693, at Foulby, in Yorkshire, where his father was then employed. At Sir Rowland's request he removed to another seat belonging to him in Lincolnshire, and at last settled at Barrow, near Barton-upon-Humber. At this time our mechanic was only seven years of age; but as soon as he was able he assisted his father in his own business, in which he continued until he was twenty years of age. Occasionally, however, he was employed in surveying land, and mending clocks and watches. He was from his childhood attached to any wheel-machinery. When he lay sick of the small-pox, about his sixth year, he had a watch placed open upon his pillow that he might amuse himself by contemplating the movement. Though his opportunities of acquiring knowledge were very few, he eagerly improved every incident for information. He frequently employed all or great part of the night in writing or drawing; and he

always acknowledged his obligations to a clergyman who officiated every Sunday in his neighbourhood for lending him a MS. copy of Professor Saunderson's lectures, which he carefully and neatly transcribed with all the diagrams.

The act of the 14th of Queen Anne, offering a large reward for discovering the longitude, probably excited Mr Harrison's notice; and living near a sea-port town, he was induced to consider how to alter the construction of a clock which he had made in 1726, so as it might not be subject to any irregularities occasioned by the difference of climates, and the motions of a ship. These difficulties he also surmounted; and his machine having answered his expectations in a trial attended with very bad weather upon the river Humber, he was advised to carry it to London, in order to apply for the parliamentary reward. Accordingly he arrived with it in London in the year 1735, and showing it to several members of the Royal society, he received a certificate from several that the principles of his machine for measuring time promised a very great and sufficient degree of exactness. In 1739 he finished another machine; and various experiments being made, it was found to be sufficiently exact to authorize the inventor to claim the reward assigned by parliament. This was followed by a third machine, produced in 1741, still less complicated than the second, and superior in accuracy, as erring only three or four seconds in a week. This he conceived to be the ne plus ultra of his attempts, and in the year 1749 he received the annual gold medal from the Royal society; but in an endeavour to improve pocket-watches, he found the principles he applied to surpass his expectations so much as to encourage him to make his fourth time-keeper, which is in the form of a pocket-watch, about six inches in diameter, and was finished in 1759. With this time-keeper his son made two voyages, the one to Jamaica, and the other to Barbadoes; in both which experiments it corrected the longitude within the nearest limits required by the act of parliament; and the inventor at different times, though not without infinite trouble, received the proposed reward of £20,000.

These four machines were given up to the board of Longitude. The three former were not of any use, as all the advantages gained by making them were comprehended in the last. They were worthy however of being carefully preserved as mechanical curiosities, to show the gradations of ingenuity executed with the most delicate workmanship. The fourth machine, which is the time-keeper, has been copied by Mr Kendall; and this copy, during a three years' voyage round the globe in the southern hemisphere with Captain Cook, answered as well as the original. The latter part of Mr Harrison's life was employed in making a fifth time-keeper, on the same principles with the preceding one, which at the end of a ten years' trial, 1772, in the king's private observatory at Richmond, erred only four seconds and a half. In 1775 he published '*A Description concerning such Mechanism as will afford a nice or true Mensuration of Time*,' 8vo. This small work also includes an account of his new Musical scale; for he had in his youth been the leader of a distinguished band of church-singers, and had a very delicate ear for music. Mr Harrison died at his house in Red Lion-square, London, March 24th, 1776, aged 83.

**HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION**  
**TO EIGHTH PERIOD,**  
**EXTENDING**  
**FROM THE ACCESSION OF GEORGE III. TO THE FRENCH**  
**REVOLUTION.**  
**WITH**  
**BIOGRAPHICAL NOTICES**  
**OF**  
**Eminent Englishmen**  
**WHO FLOURISHED DURING THAT PERIOD.**



## HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION

TO

### EIGHTH PERIOD.

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George the Third's reign historically divided into two periods—Prosperous situation of the country at accession of George III.—Pernicious influence of Lord Bute—Affair of Wilkes—Junius—Lord North's ministry—The American revolution—Coalition ministry—Peace with France—Ecclesiastical affairs—Rise of Methodism—Fine arts.

IN the immediately preceding section of our work we have passed under slight review some of the master-spirits of an age in nowise distinguished for any of those great movements by which the political or literary destinies of our country have been determined. We are now about to enter on a busier scene, and to offer a few biographical notices of men who took part in transactions highly momentous in themselves and still more so in their consequences. The reign of the third George conspicuously divides itself into two parts: the former embracing those transactions which led to the revolt and final separation of the North American colonies from Great Britain,—the latter commencing with the French revolution, and terminating with the accession of George IV. to the regency. It is to the former of these periods that we purpose to devote the present section.

The period we have now marked out opens under the administration of the greatest minister that had yet been called to direct the energies of this country. During the last four years of George the Second's reign, and the first year of his successor, England assumed a most commanding attitude among the nations of Europe, and she owed her greatness entirely to the genius of one individual. It was Pitt who made her all she then became. He entered office when the affairs of the country were in a wretched state; his coadjutors were the same imbeciles who had reduced the fortunes of Britain to so low an ebb; his alone were the genius, the spirit, and the system which retrieved them. The new monarch too was well-qualified to win golden opinions from his people: "Youth,—striking appearance,—a fondness not less for the gay and peaceful amusements of court-life than for those field-sports which make the popular indulgence of the English landholder,—a strong sense of the national value of scientific and literary pursuits,—piety unquestionably sincere, and morals on which even satire never dared to throw a stain,—were the claims of the king to the approbation of his

people."<sup>1</sup> But all these advantages were destined to be soon neutralized by the pernicious influence of the favourite, Lord Bute. The history of the next ten years, is the history of a series of struggles betwixt a nominal ministry and the influence of a virtual premier behind the throne.

Among the earliest and bitterest opponents of Bute was the famous John Wilkes. His story—which will be told at some length in our notices of him and Lord Camden—marks an epoch in the period now under consideration. A spirit had long been fostering at home which only required such an event as that of Wilkes's misjudged and mismanaged prosecution to rouse it into activity and visible display. "Our new world," says Simond, "has generally the credit of having first lighted the torch which was to illuminate and soon set in a blaze the finest part of Europe; yet I think the flint was struck and the first spark elicited by the patriot John Wilkes, a few years before. In a time of profound peace, the restless spirits of men, deprived of other objects of public curiosity, seized with avidity on those questions which were then agitated with so much violence in England, touching the rights of the people and of the government, and the nature of power. The end of the political drama was in favour of what was called, and in some respects was, the liberty of the people. Encouraged by the success of this great comedian, the curtain was no sooner dropped on the scene of Europe, than new actors hastened to raise it again in America, and to give the world a new play infinitely more interesting and brilliant than the first." Who all these actors were, and how their drama gradually unfolded itself, it would now be impossible to say. John Adams, writing to Niles, says: "In plain English, and in few words, I consider the true history of the American revolution, and the establishment of our present constitution, as lost for ever; and nothing but misrepresentations, or partial accounts of it, will ever be recovered." Jefferson had before communicated to Adams the same opinion. "On the subject of the American revolution, you ask, who shall write it? who can write it? and who will ever be able to write it? Nobody: except merely its external facts; all its councils, designs, and discussions having been conducted by Congress with closed doors, and no member, as far as I know, having even made notes of them. These, which are the life and soul of history, must for ever be unknown." Much of the agitation of the public mind in Britain was also due to the appearance of Junius's letters. Hitherto the circulation of political pamphlets had been usually very limited, and their effect seldom visible; there was no reading public yet formed. Junius, by his eloquence, boldness, and tremendous force of invective, arrested universal attention, and infused a love of political controversy into the mind of the nation at large.

"The Rockingham administration, during the four months of its existence, did more perhaps for the principles of the constitution than any one administration that England had seen since the Revolution. They were betrayed, it is true, into a few awkward overflowings of loyalty, which the rare access of whigs to the throne may at once account for and excuse; and Burke, in particular, has left us a specimen of his taste for extremes, in that burst of optimism with which he described

<sup>1</sup> Croly.

the king's message, as 'the best of messages to the best of people from the best of kings.' But these first effects of the atmosphere of a court, upon heads unaccustomed to it, are natural and harmless: while the measures that passed during that brief interval, directed against the sources of parliamentary corruption, and confirmatory of the best principles of the constitution, must ever be remembered to the honour of the party from which they emanated. The exclusion of contractors from the house of commons,—the disqualification of revenue-officers from voting at elections,—the disfranchisement of corrupt voters at Cricklade, by which a second precedent was furnished towards that plan of gradual reform, which has, in our own time, been so forcibly recommended by Lord John Russell,—the diminution of the patronage of the crown, by Mr Burke's celebrated bill,—the return to the old constitutional practice of making the revenues of the crown pay off their own incumbrances, which salutary principle was again lost in the hands of Mr Pitt,—the atonement at last made to the violated rights of electors, by the rescinding of the resolutions relative to Wilkes,—the frank and cordial understanding entered into with Ireland, which identifies the memory of Mr Fox and this ministry with the only oasis in the whole desert of Irish history,—so many and such important recognitions of the best principles of whiggism, followed up, as they were, by the resolutions of Lord John Cavendish at the close of the session, pledging the ministers to a perseverance in the same task of purification and retrenchment,—give an aspect to this short period of the annals of the late reign, to which the eye turns for relief from the arbitrary complexion of the rest; and furnish us with, at least, one consoling instance, where the principles professed by statesmen, when in opposition, were retained and sincerely acted upon by them in power."<sup>a</sup>

North came into office as chancellor of the exchequer in 1767. His misrule cost Britain only her American colonies. Yet it would be unjust to ascribe the dogged determination of the English government to persist in the subjection of the colonies to the settled hostility and unyielding temper of the premier alone. The king himself insisted upon the prosecution of the war, and Lord North not only made frequent and earnest endeavours to bring it to a close, but urged a coalition with the very men who had opposed the American war throughout. One fact in regard to the conduct of the English ministry in persevering in this war long after, to every dispassionate mind, the chances of success were as nothing, is now apparent; and their behaviour is explained upon the ground of the utterly erroneous views they entertained of the disposition of the mass of the American people. These views were derived from the reports of refugees, and late civil officers in the colonies, who had returned to England. Reports too were constantly sent to England of different intended movements in favour of the mother-country, which invariably deceived expectation; and they had the effect too of interfering with the plans and arrangements of the British commanders in America. Mr Sparks, an American writer, says: "This delusion prevailed during the whole war. The ministers acted under a perpetual deception. In looking back upon events as they actually occurred, it is impossible to conceive a collection of state-papers more

<sup>a</sup> Moore's 'Life of Sheridan.'

extraordinary for the erroneous impressions, contracted knowledge, and impracticable aims of the writer, than the correspondence of Lord George Germaine with the British commanders in America.”<sup>3</sup> On the 4th of July, 1776, the American people entered on their career of independence. But it would be misjudging the matter altogether were we to trace that great movement, with all its reflected impulses on the old countries of Europe, to the ebullition of a momentary impatience under existing hardships; neither was it the result of extensive distresses pressing upon a large mass of the American community. When the people of the United colonies rose in resistance to the mother-country, they were in possession of as large a portion of the elements and means of social comfort as those of the mother-country itself. It was a revolution brought about by principles which the colonists had inherited from their English ancestors, the exiled puritans; these principles<sup>4</sup> had never perished from the bosoms of the descendants of ‘the pilgrim-fathers’; on the contrary, every year had added to their strength, and every accession of strength had brought the unavoidable crisis nearer to maturity. The annals of each one of the colonies exhibit ample evidences of the long existence of this leaven of freedom, which was perpetually working upwards to the surface; and although it ultimately broke forth in one particular spot, yet the whole interior had been long and equally in a ferment, and the agitation must have forced a vent somewhere and soon. It had long been evident that wherever the pressure from without should be greatest, there would be the point of most active resistance. The new spirit which was thus called to life, or rather activity, on the other side of the Atlantic, manifested itself at a critical period for the old continent. There the political existence of the people was for the most part extinguished; the maxims by which nations were governed lay less in the great fundamental principles of human nature and the social constitution, than in the fluctuating systems of cabinets, and the personal feelings and caprices of their rulers; external aggrandisement, not domestic tranquillity and prosperity, seemed to be the great object aimed at by the leading powers of Europe; and the rapacity of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, had found a present object in the hapless kingdom of Poland. The British government, too, were actively engaged in the plan of supporting the national commerce upon territorial acquisitions, and of forming a new and gigantic empire in the East; and the exasperated feelings manifested towards the western colonies were to be attributed as much to mistaken views of commercial polity as to the love of dominion and a thirst for conquest.

The peace of 1782 also marks an important epoch in the period now under review. We shall relate the effects of that measure in the words of Mr Croly:—“It was scarcely proclaimed when France was crowded with the English nobility. Versailles was the centre of all that was sumptuous in Europe. The graces of the young queen then in the pride of youth and beauty,—the pomp of the royal family and the noblesse,—and the costliness of the fêtes and celebrations for which France has been always famous, rendered the court the dictator of manners,

<sup>3</sup> ‘Writings of George Washington, &c.’

<sup>4</sup> For example, the familiar principle of English liberty,—their right of exemption from taxes unsanctioned by their own assent in the persons of their representatives.



morals, and politics, to all the higher ranks of the civilized world. But the Revolution was now hastening with the strides of a giant upon France: the torch was already waving over the chambers of this morbid and guilty luxury. The corrective was terrible; history has no more stinging retrospect than the contrast of that brilliant time with the days of shame and agony that followed,—the untimely fate of beauty, birth, and heroism,—the more than serpent-brood that started up in the path which France once emulously covered with flowers for the step of her rulers,—the hideous suspense of the dungeon,—the heart-broken farewell to life and royalty upon the scaffold. But France was the grand corruptor, and its supremacy must in a few years have spread incurable disease through the moral frame of Europe. The English men of rank brought back with them its dissipation and its infidelity. The immediate circle of the English court was clear. The grave virtue of the king held the courtiers in awe; and the queen—with a pious wisdom for which her name should long be held in honour—indignantly repulsed every attempt of female levity to approach her presence. But beyond this sacred circle, the influence of foreign association was felt through every class of society. The great body of the writers of England, the men of whom the indiscretions of the higher ranks stand most in awe, had become less the guardians than the seducers of the public mind. The ‘*Encyclopédie*,’ the code of rebellion and irreligion still more than of science, had enlisted the majority in open scorn of all that the heart should practise or the head revere; and the Parisian atheists scarcely exceeded the truth when they boasted of erecting a temple that was to be frequented by worshippers of every tongue. A cosmopolite, infidel republic of letters was already lifting its front above the old sovereignties,—gathering under its banners a race of mankind new to public struggle, the whole secluded, yet jealous and vexed race of labourers in the intellectual field, and summoning them to devote their most unexhausted vigour and masculine ambition to the service of a sovereign, at whose right and left like the urns of Homer’s Jove, stood the golden founts of glory. London was becoming Paris in all but the name. There never was a period when the tone of our society was more polished, more animated, or more corrupt. Gaming, horse-racing, and still deeper deviations from the right rule of life, were looked upon as the natural embellishments of rank and fortune. Private theatricals—one of the most dexterous and assured expedients to extinguish first the delicacy of woman, and then her virtue—were the favourite indulgence; and by an outrage to English decorum, which completed the likeness to France, women were beginning to mingle in public life, try their influence in party, and entangle their feebleness in the absurdities and abominations of political intrigue.”

The coalition between North and Fox was nearly as short-lived as it deserved to be. Its death was, in the words of Sheridan’s biographer, “worthy of its birth. Originating in a coalition of whigs and tories, which compromised the principles of freedom, it was destroyed by a coalition of king and people, which is even, perhaps, more dangerous to its practice. The conduct, indeed, of all estates and parties, during this short interval, was any thing but laudable. The leaven of the unlucky alliance with Lord North was but too visible in many of the measures of the ministry, in the jobbing terms of the loan, the resistance

to Mr Pitt's plan of retrenchment, and the diminished numbers on the side of parliamentary reform. On the other hand, Mr Pitt and his party, in their eagerness for place, did not hesitate to avail themselves of the ambidexterous and unworthy trick of representing the India bill to the people as a tory plan for the increase of royal influence, and to the king, as a whig conspiracy for the curtailment of it. The king himself, in his arbitrary interference with the deliberations of the lords, and the lords, in the prompt servility with which so many of them obeyed his bidding, gave specimens of their respective branches of the constitution, by no means creditable, while finally the people, by the unanimous outcry with which they rose in defence of the monopoly of Leadenhall-street and the sovereign will of the court, proved how little of the '*vox Dei*' there may sometimes be in such clamour." The history of the younger Pitt's administration belongs to the succeeding period.

The ecclesiastical annals of the period now under consideration are rich in great names. Foremost among these is Warburton, whose '*Divine Legation*' placed him at the head of all contemporary theologians for extensive and profound learning. The exquisite taste of Lowth,—the deep devotional piety of Horne,—the argumentative powers of Ogden, Powell, and Balguy,—the critical erudition of Kennicott and Travis,—the ardent practical Christianity of the two Wesleys, Romaine, Venn, Toplady, and many others,—distinguish and adorn this era. To the exertions of this latter class of divines England is deeply indebted. Between the period of the Restoration and that on which we are now entering a set of preachers had arisen, "who, discarding every thing that was peculiar and impressive in the gospel, contented themselves and their hearers with dry disquisitions on morality, inferior often to the instructions of heathen writers. Hence followed a state of spiritual ignorance among the people, and a total apathy on all subjects connected with true religion. Devotion was in a great measure extinguished in the mass of the community. The people became alienated from the articles and doctrines of the church,—eternal concerns dropped out of the mind,—and what remained of religion was confined to an attention to a few forms and ceremonies. An exception might now and then be traced in a heartless and scholastic discussion of the Trinity, or the atonement, on the return of appropriate festivals; but such doctrines as the corruption of human nature, the necessity of the new birth, justification by faith, and the influence of the Spirit, were either abandoned to oblivion, or held up in opprobrious names to ridicule and contempt. The creed established by law had no sort of influence on the people; 'the pulpit completely vanquished the desk, piety and puritanism were confounded in one common reproach, an almost pagan darkness in the concerns of salvation prevailed, and the English became the most irreligious people upon earth.' Such was the situation of things when Whitefield and Wesley made their appearance, who—whatever failings may be allowed in their character—will be hailed by posterity as the second reformers of England. It was no part of their wish to innovate on the established religion of their country; their sole aim was to recall the people to the good old way, and to imprint the doctrine of the articles and homilies on the spirits of men. Most earnest and indefatigable were they in the prosecution of this design; but this doc-

trine had been so completely obliterated from the mind by contrary instruction, that the attempt to revive it met with obloquy and reproach; 'the revival of the old appeared like the introduction of a new religion, and the hostility it excited was less sanguinary, but scarcely less virulent, than that which signalized the first publication of Christianity.' This picture might be enlarged, and rendered still more gloomy, by the description of particular facts and circumstances; but this rapid sketch is sufficient to show that the rise of methodism was a revival of religion in England, whatever irregularities may have attended it. Since the Reformation there had been no efforts for religion equally vigorous and extensive. Churchmen and dissenters were aroused by methodism from a religious slumber in which both were bound; it 'came upon the breadth of the land' with a sound and a power to awake the dead; and thousands were awakened, and raised to 'newness of life.' "

In literature we have the distinguished names of Goldsmith, Bryant, Hume, Gibbon, Porson, Jones, and a host of minor names, and foremost, and above all, Johnson.

In poetry the school of West, Mason, and Gray, to which the Wartons also may be referred, was in the ascendant at the accession of George III. Churchill, Chatterton, Michael Bruce, Emily, Russell, and Bampfylde, belonged not indeed to this school, but their lives were too short to produce any great effect on their contemporaries. Darwin wrote much and well; but he did nothing for poetry with all his ingenious personifications; his praise lies in the departments more immediately connected with his profession. He was a man of extensive scientific acquirements, and his views in physiology are original and profound. As a poet, we do not remember that he has had any followers. Merry, with no genius whatever, was highly popular in his day,—a most convincing proof that the fortunes of poesy were at a low ebb indeed in England. Cowper, with little consciousness perhaps that he was an innovator, produced a mighty reform in English poetry. He affected no peculiarity of style, no unusual trains of thought; but addressed himself from the heart to the heart in a strain of feeling, that all could appreciate—for it was pure, simple nature—and in language at once simple and chaste. He created a new species of blank verse infinitely superior in variety to that to which the English ear had been so long accustomed. He presented to us "the primitive muse of England in her own undisguised features, her flexibility of deportment, her smiles and tears, her general animation and frequent rusticity." The public at once recognised the superior nature and loveliness of the long-forgotten stranger; and all succeeding poets did homage to the muse of Cowper. The rise and success of Cowper in the period we have now entered upon compensates for the absence of the great comic novelists of the preceding period.

The establishment of the society of arts, manufacture, and commerce, in 1750, contributed not a little to the promotion of the fine arts in Great Britain. The exertions of the artists themselves did still more. On the 21st of April, 1760, the first exhibition of paintings by British artists was made in the rooms of the society of arts. In 1765 a char-

<sup>s</sup> Anonymous Life of Wesley.

ter was granted to the associated artists ; and in 1768 the Royal academy was established, and Sir Joshua Reynolds elected president ; but previous to this event, Hogarth, Gainsborough, Wilson, Barry, Sir Joshua himself, and several others, had established for themselves high reputation both in their own country and on the continent.

## I.—POLITICAL. SERIES.

### George III.

BORN A. D. 1738.—DIED A. D. 1820.

GEORGE, son of Frederick, prince of Wales, and the princess Augusta of Saxe-Gotha, was born on the 4th of June, (new style,) 1738. He was publicly baptized by the name of George William Frederick. At his birth he was a weak infant; but became robust under the care of a nurse selected for him from a very humble class of the community.

At the age of six he was placed under the care of Dr Francis Ayscough to learn his letters. The doctor seems to have neglected his duty towards his pupil, or perhaps was incompetent to the charge he had undertaken.<sup>1</sup> Walpole says that, at eleven years of age, the prince could not read English. He appears, however, to have been a diligent and docile child, though not of quick parts. His governor at this time was Lord North. In 1751 he was transferred to the care of Lord Harcourt as governor, and the bishop of Norwich and Andrew Stone as subgovernor and preceptor. The bishop and Lord Harcourt resigned their charge in the following year, and were succeeded by Lord Waldegrave and the bishop of Peterborough; Stone continuing to fill the office of preceptor. Stone appears to have been a man of energy and well-qualified for his important task, had he not been hampered by others. The princess-dowager used to say, that when Stone discoursed with the prince on any topic his attention seemed to be caught, which was not the case when the bishop assumed the office of tutor. When the prince would plead idleness of disposition as a reason why he had not accomplished his tasks, Stone has replied: "Sir, yours is not idleness. Your brother Edward is idle; but you must not call being asleep all day being idle."

In 1755, George II. contemplated a match between his grandson and a niece of the king of Prussia. "The suddenness of the measure, and the little time left for preventing it," says Walpole, "at once unhinged all the prudence of the princess. From the death of the prince, her object had been the government of her son. She had taught him great devotion, and she had taken care that he should be taught nothing else. She saw no reason to apprehend, from his own genius, that he would escape her; but bigotted, and young, and chaste, what empire might not a youthful bride—and the princess was reckoned artful—assume over him! The princess thought that prudence now would be most imprudent. She instilled into her son the greatest aversion to the match; and he protested against it!" In the following year, the princess proposed an union between the heir-apparent, and a female of the house of Saxe-Gotha; but it was instantly reprobated by the king, who said "he knew enough of that family already."

<sup>1</sup> Walpole thus writes of him: "Mr Pelham said, 'I know nothing of Dr Ayscough. —Oh, yes! I recollect I was told by a very worthy man, two years ago, that he was a great rogue.'"

In 1756, the prince having attained the age of royal majority, ministers, wishing to get him into their own management, persuaded the king to offer him a handsome allowance from the civil list, with a suite of apartments at St James's and also at Kensington. He took the allowance, but declined to leave the society of his mother. Lord Bute had already gained that unbounded influence over the mind of the heir-apparent, which was so often put forth in the succeeding reign to the destruction of cabinets and embarrassment of public affairs.

The decease of George II., and the accession of George III., took place on the 25th of October, 1760. The people do not appear to have formed very high expectations of their future sovereign. He had hitherto appeared little in public, and was known to be entirely guided by the united influence of his mother and Lord Bute. There was one circumstance, however, which operated greatly in his favour. He was a Briton; and the throne was now again to be filled in him, after a succession of foreigners, with a prince born and bred in England. His majesty was proclaimed on the 26th, and on the 27th of October held his first council. Contrary to expectation, notwithstanding the novelty of his situation, he acquitted himself with great care and propriety. Even Horace Walpole's prying eye could detect nothing very faulty in the new king's demeanour. "Every thing," he writes, "goes on with great propriety and decency; the civilest letter to Princess Emily; the greatest kindness to the duke; the utmost respect to the dead body. There is great dignity and grace in the king's manner. I don't say this—like my dear Madame Sevigné—because he was civil to me, but the part is well acted. He has all the appearances of being amiable: there is great grace to temper much dignity, and good nature which breaks out on all occasions." Having added the duke of York and Lord Bute to the privy-council, the king ordered parliament to be prorogued to the 18th of November. On the day of its re-assembling, he opened the session in person. In his speech on this occasion, he said: "Born and educated in this country, I glory in the name of Briton; and the peculiar happiness of my life will ever consist in promoting the welfare of a people, whose loyalty and warm affection to me, I consider as the greatest and most permanent security of my throne; and I doubt not, but their steadiness in those principles will equal the firmness of my invariable resolution to adhere to, and strengthen this excellent constitution in church and state; and to maintain the toleration inviolable. The civil and religious rights of my loving subjects are equally dear to me with the most valuable prerogatives of my crown; and, as the surest foundation of the whole, and the best means to draw down the divine favour on my reign, it is my fixed purpose to countenance and encourage the practice of true religion and virtue. Happier still should I have been, had I found my kingdoms, whose true interest I have entirely at heart, in full peace; but since the ambition, injurious encroachments, and dangerous designs of my enemies, rendered the war both just and necessary, and the generous overture, made last winter, towards a congress, for a pacification has not yet produced any suitable return, I am determined, with your cheerful and powerful assistance, to prosecute this war with vigour, in order to that desirable object, a safe and honourable peace. For this purpose, it is absolutely incumbent upon us to be early prepared; and I rely upon your zeal and hearty

concurrence to support the king of Prussia and the rest of my allies, and to make ample provision for carrying on the war, as the only means to bring our enemies to equitable terms of accommodation." The principal events of this first session were the voting of the supplies, the fixing of the civil list at £800,000, and the election of a new speaker in room of Arthur Onslow, resigned. On the 19th of March parliament was prorogued, and on the 21st dissolved. Next day Mr Legge was dismissed from his office of chancellor of the exchequer, and succeeded by Viscount Barrington. On the 25th the earl of Holderness resigned, and Lord Bute was appointed one of the secretaries of state in his room. Pitt, however, continued in office as premier till the 5th of October.

On the 8th of July the king announced, at an extraordinary council, his intentions of demanding the hand of the Princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. The announcement surprised the greater part of the council, for the previous negotiations had been kept a profound secret by the principal managers, the dowager-princess, and Lord Bute. It has been said that the king's affections were already occupied before this match was pressed upon his attention. It is certain he evinced a great partiality for the beautiful Lady Sarah Lennox, and this attachment was artfully fostered by Fox, afterwards Lord Holland, the young lady's brother-in-law.<sup>2</sup> The princess-dowager at first wished to select a consort for her son from her own family of Saxe-Gotha; but, as the members of it were supposed to possess an hereditary disease, her desire was over-ruled. A Colonel Græme, it is said, was then sent by Lord Bute to the various courts in Germany in quest of a princess of pure blood, and healthy constitution; possessed of elegant accomplishments, particularly music, to which the king was much attached; and of a mild disposition. Such were the colonel's instructions; and his choice fell on Sophia Charlotte, the second daughter of Charles Lewis Frederick, duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, by his consort, Albertina Elizabeth, daughter of the duke of Saxe-Hildburghausen. This princess was born at the palace of Mirow, on the 16th of May, 1744. Whatever were the feelings of some members, no opposition was offered in council to his majesty's wishes. On the 15th of August preliminaries were concluded, and on the 6th of September, the royal yacht, with the princess and suite on board, convoyed by Lord Anson, entered Harwich roads. That indefatigable chronicler of court-gossip, Horace Walpole, gives us some amusing notices of the circumstances attending the princess's introduction to the country of which she was the destined queen. "I forgive history," he writes, "for knowing nothing, when so public an event as the arrival of a new queen is a mystery, even at this very moment, in St James's street. The messenger that brought

<sup>2</sup> This lady has been described in glowing terms by Walpole. "There was a play," he says, "at Holland-house, acted by children; not all children, for Lady Sarah Lennox and Lady Susan Strangeways played the women. It was *Jane Shore*: Charles Fox was Hastings. The two girls were delightful, and acted with so much nature, that they appeared the very things they represented. Lady Sarah was more beautiful than you can conceive, and her very awkwardness gave an air of truth to the sham of the part, and the antiquity of the time, which was kept up by her dress, taken out of Montfauçon. Lady Susan was dressed from *Jane Seymour*. I was more struck with the last scene between the two women, than ever I was when I have seen it on the stage. When Lady Sarah was in white, with her hair about her ears, and on the ground, no *Magdalen of Corregio* was half so lovely and expressive."

the letter yesterday morning said she arrived at half an hour after four at Harwich. This was immediately translated into landing, and notified in those words to the ministers. Six hours afterwards it proved no such thing, and that she was only in Harwich road; and they recollected that half an hour after four happens twice in twenty-four hours, and the letter did not specify which of the twices it was. Well! the bridemaids whipped on their virginity; the New road and the parks were thronged; the guns were choaking with impatience to go off; and Sir James Lowther, who was to pledge his majesty, was actually married to Lady Mary Stuart. Five, six, seven, eight o'clock came, and no queen! She lay at Witham, at Lord Abercorn's, who was most tranquilly in town; and it is not certain even whether she will be in town to-night. She has been sick but half an hour; sung and played on the harpsichord all the voyage, and been cheerful the whole time." At last, however, she reached London under an escort of the life-guards. On her arrival at the palace, the duke of York handed her out of the carriage, and the king raised her up and saluted her, just as she was about to drop on her knee to pay him obeisance. It was afterwards rumoured that the king, on first seeing his bride, shrunk back from a feeling of disappointment, her personal graces being far from striking. But Walpole says, "In half an hour, one heard of nothing but proclamations of her beauty; every body was content, every body was pleased. At seven," he continues, "one went to court; the night was sultry. About ten, the procession began to move towards the chapel; and at eleven they all came up into the drawing-room. She looks very sensible, cheerful, and is remarkably genteel. Her tiara of diamonds was very pretty,—her stomacher sumptuous,—her violet-velvet mantle and ermine so heavy, that the spectators knew as much of her upper half as the king himself. You will have no doubt of her sense by what I shall tell you. On the road they wanted her to curl her toupet,—she said she thought it looked as well as that of any of the ladies sent to fetch her; if the king bid her, she would wear a periwig, otherwise she would remain as she was. When she caught the first glimpse of the palace she grew frightened, and turned pale. The duchess of Hamilton smiled; the princess said, 'My dear duchess, you may laugh; you have been married twice, but it is no joke to me!' Her lips trembled as the coach stopped, but she jumped out with spirit, and has done nothing but with good humour and cheerfulness. She talks a great deal, is easy, civil, and not disconcerted. At first, when the bridemaids and the court were introduced to her, she said, 'Mon Dieu, il y en a tant, il y en a tant!' She was pleased when she was to kiss the peeresses; but Lady Augusta was forced to take her hand and give it to those that were to kiss it, which was prettily humble and good-natured. While they waited for supper, she sat down, sung, and played. Her French is tolerable; she exchanged much both of that and German with the king." The archbishop of Canterbury performed the marriage ceremony on the evening of the same day.

On the 22d of September, the august ceremony of the coronation of their majesties took place. An eye-witness has thus described it: "First, conceive to yourselves the fronts of all the houses that could command the least point of view lined with scaffolding, like so many galleries or boxes, raised one above another to the very roofs. These were covered



with carpets and cloths of different colours, which presented a pleasing variety to the eye ; and if you consider the brilliant appearance of those seated in them—many of whom were most splendidly dressed—you will imagine that this was no indifferent part of the show. A rank of foot-soldiers was placed on each side within the platform, and on the outside were stationed, at proper intervals, parties of horse-guards. As soon as it was daybreak, we were diverted with seeing the coaches and chairs of the nobility passing along with much difficulty ; many persons richly dressed were forced to leave their carriages, and be escorted by the soldiers to their places. Their majesties came in chairs from St James's to Westminster hall, about nine o'clock. In spite of the pains taken to have every thing in order, some curious blunders were committed. They actually forgot the sword of state, the chairs for the king and queen, and even the canopies ; so that, as a substitute for the first, they were forced to borrow the lord-mayor's sword, and to keep their majesties waiting till matters were arranged in the hall. It is not in the power of words to describe either the beauty of the spectacle or the joy of the multitude when the royal pair passed. It was observed, that as they turned the corner which commanded a view of Westminster bridge, they stopped to look at the people, the appearance of whom, uncovered, and gradually rising in a dense mass from the ground, resembled a pavement of heads and faces." When the king approached the altar, in order to receive the sacrament, he asked if he should lay aside his crown. The archbishop of Canterbury replied, that there was no order in the service-book on the subject. "Then there ought to be," rejoined the king, and immediately took off his crown.—Bishop Newton, speaking of his majesty's deportment at the coronation, declares, "that no actor in the character of Pyrrhus in the Distressed Mother, not even Booth himself, who was celebrated for it in the Spectator, ever ascended the throne with so much grace and dignity."—Walpole has given us some amusing anecdotes of this ceremony :—"At the dinner, Earl Talbot, as lord-steward, on the second course being served up, rode from the hall-gate to the platform steps. The earl piqued himself on backing his horse down the hall and not turning its rump towards the king ; but he had taken such pains to dress it to that duty, that it entered backwards ; and at his retreat, the spectators clapped,—a terrible indecorum, but suitable to such Bartholomew fair doings. He had twenty demelés, but came out of none creditably." Lady Townshend said, she should be very glad to see a coronation, as she had never seen one. "Why," said Walpole, "madam, you walked at the last." "Yes, child," said she, "but I saw nothing of it : I looked to see who looked at me." The king complained of the paucity of precedents as to the ceremonies. Lord Effingham owned that the earl-marshal's office had been strangely neglected ; "but," added he, "I have taken such care, that the *next* coronation may be regulated in the most exact manner imaginable." Lady Cowper, for some time, "refused to set a foot with my Lady M. ; and when she was at last obliged to associate with her, set out on a round trot, as if she designed to prove the antiquity of her family, by marching as lustily as a maid of honour of Queen Gwinevir."

On the resignation of Pitt, Lord Bute became the virtual head of the government. The new minister was instantly assailed by Wilkes in the

'North Britain' and a host of other writers, and the king came in for his share in the favourite's unpopularity. For a time the minister was supported against fearful odds by his sovereign's partiality; and when he was at last compelled to retire from the public exercise of power, he continued, "while lurking behind the throne, to be nearly as much prime minister as he had been while standing before it." It was by his advice that, on the death of the earl of Egremont, overtures were made to Pitt to resume office. The king had two interviews of some hours' duration with the haughty commoner, but found him impracticable. Lord Hardwicke, describing this interview, says: "His majesty mentioned Lord Northumberland for the treasury, still proceeding upon the supposition of a change. To this Mr Pitt hesitated an objection: that certainly Lord Northumberland might be considered, but that he should not have thought of him for the treasury. Mr Pitt said, 'Suppose your majesty should think fit to give his lordship the paymaster's place?' The king replied, 'But, Mr Pitt, I had designed that office for poor George Grenville. He is your near relation, and you once loved him.' To this the only answer made was a low bow. And now here comes the bait. 'Why,' says his majesty, 'should not Lord Temple have the treasury? You could go on then very well.' 'Sir, the person whom you shall think fit to honour with the chief conduct of your affairs, cannot possibly go on without a treasury connected with him; but that alone will do nothing. It cannot be carried on without the great families who have supported the revolution government, and other great persons of whose abilities and integrity the public have had experience, and who have weight and credit in the nation. I should only deceive your majesty if I should leave you in an opinion that I could go on, and your majesty make a solid administration on any other foot.' 'Well, Mr Pitt, I see (or I fear,) this won't do. My honour is concerned, and I must support it.'" Lord Hardwicke adds: "Ministers are so stung with this admission that they cannot go on—and what has passed on this occasion will certainly make them less able to go on—and with my Lord Bute's having thus carried them to market in his pocket, that they say Lord Bute has attempted to sacrifice them to his own fears and timidity,—that they do not depend upon him, and will have nothing more to do with him. And I have been very credibly informed, that both Lord Halifax and George Grenville have declared, that he is to go beyond the sea, and reside for a twelvemonth or more." In these interviews the king conceived a strong dislike, amounting almost to antipathy, to Pitt; he was afterwards heard to declare that he would rather have placed the crown with his own hands on Pitt's head, than have submitted to his arrogant dictation as to the formation of any ministry in which he was to bear a part.

The American war was doubtless the consequence of the king's obstinacy and misapprehension of the reciprocal duties of the citizens of a free state and the head of the state. He compelled George Grenville to introduce the unfortunate American stamp act, and although this obnoxious measure was repealed on the accession of the Rockingham party, yet the king persisted in goading on his ministers to those steps which ended in the dismemberment of the transatlantic colonies from the British empire. The prosecution of Wilkes,—the appointment of Lord Hillsborough to the colonial secretaryship,—the announcement of a

deficiency in the civil list to the amount of half a million,—the retirement of Chatham, the nation's idol, in disgust,—the dismissal of the lord-chancellor and the elevation of Lord North to the premiership,—were all events which filled the public mind with alarm and disgust, and rendered the king, at the close of 1769, one of the most unpopular sovereigns that had ever sat on the throne of Britain. The natural dissatisfaction was fostered by the appearance of Junius's famous letter to the king. On the 14th of March, 1770, Mr Beckford, then a second time lord-mayor, attended by the sheriffs, a few of the aldermen, and a great body of the common council, with a prodigious mob, went to St James's, and there presented to the king what was called "the humble address, remonstrance, and petition of the city of London," though written in a strain of the most daring and unparalleled insolence. It stated, that the complaints made in a former petition remained unanswered: that the only judge removable at the pleasure of the crown had been dismissed from his high office for defending in parliament the laws and the constitution: that under the same secret and malign influence, which through each successive administration had defeated every good intention, the majority of the house of commons had deprived the people of their dearest rights: that the decision on the Middlesex election was a deed more ruinous in its consequences than the levying of ship-money by Charles the first, or the dispensing power by James the second,—a deed that must vitiate all the future proceedings of the parliament, as the acts of the legislature could no more be valid without a legal house of commons, than without a legal prince on the throne: that representatives of the people were essential to the making of laws: that the present house of commons did not represent the people: and that its sitting was continued for no other reason but because it was corruptly subservient to the designs of his majesty's ministers. The petitioners concluded with reminding his majesty of his coronation oath, and with assuring themselves that he would dissolve the parliament, and remove those evil ministers for ever from his council. His majesty replied with great temper and dignity: "I shall always be ready to receive the requests, and to listen to the complaints of my subjects: but it gives me great concern to find that any of them should have been so far misled, as to offer me an address and remonstrance, the contents of which I cannot but consider as disrespectful to me, injurious to my parliament, and irreconcilable to the principles of the constitution. I have ever made the law of the land the rule of my conduct, esteeming it my chief glory to reign over a free people. With this view I have always been careful, as well to execute faithfully the trust reposed in me, as to avoid even the appearance of invading any of those powers which the constitution has placed in other hands. It is only by persevering in such a conduct, that I can either discharge my own duty, or secure to my subjects the free enjoyment of those rights which my family were called to defend: and while I act upon these principles, I shall have a right to expect, and I am confident I shall continue to receive, the steady and affectionate support of my people." A motion was made in the house of commons, on the following day, for a copy of the remonstrance, as well as of his majesty's answer. This motion was carried by a majority of almost three to one, after a warm debate, in which the lord-mayor, Alderman Trecothic one of the city

members, and both the sheriffs Townshend and Sawbridge, gloried in the part they had taken in that transaction. A third and fourth communication to the throne was made by the same sturdy remonstrants; but the king treated them with silent contempt. Nothing daunted by the royal displeasure, the citizens of London again approached the throne with a petition praying his majesty to treat the American colonies with justice, and dismiss from his councils his present advisers. His majesty condescended to reply on this occasion in a few words: "It is with the utmost astonishment," he said, "that I find any of my subjects capable of encouraging the rebellious disposition which unhappily exists in some of my colonies in North America. Having entire confidence in the wisdom of my parliament, the great council of the nation, I will steadily pursue those measures which they have recommended for the support of the constitutional rights of Great Britain, and the protection of the commercial interests of my kingdoms." His majesty's obstinacy, however, seldom carried him beyond self-control; in circumstances which might have embarrassed or irritated very weak minds, he is known to have maintained his dignity with coolness and self-possession. When Adams, the first American envoy to Britain, attended at the levee, the king received him with dignified composure, and said, "I was the last man in England to acknowledge the independence of America, but having done so, I shall also be the last to violate it!" Adams's own account of the interview is as follows:—"The king asked me whether I came last from France, and, on answering in the affirmative, he put on an air of familiarity, and, smiling, or rather laughing, said, 'There is an opinion among some people, that you are not the most attached of all your countrymen to the manners of France.' I was surprised at this, because I thought it an indiscretion, and a descent from his dignity. I was a little embarrassed, but determined not to deny the truth on the one hand, nor leave him to infer from it any attachment to England on the other. I threw off as much gravity as I could, and assumed an air of gaiety and a tone of decision, saying, 'That opinion, sir, is not mistaken; I must avow to your majesty I have no attachment but to my own country.' The king replied, as quick as lightning, 'An honest man will never have any other.'"

The coalition ministry, headed by Fox and North, was highly ungrateful to the king, who embraced the opportunity afforded him by the introduction of Fox's India bill, and the opposition of the house of lords to that measure, to demand the seals of office from both, and place them in the hands of Pitt. The change was hailed by a large party in the nation. The city of London, so lately malcontent, took the lead in congratulating the throne. "Your faithful citizens," they said, "lately beheld with infinite concern the progress of a measure which equally tended to encroach on the right of your majesty's crown—to annihilate the chartered rights of the East India company—and to raise a power unknown to this free government, and highly inimical to its safety. As this dangerous measure was warmly supported by your majesty's late ministers, we heartily rejoice in their dismissal, and humbly thank your majesty for exerting your prerogative in a manner so salutary and constitutional." And concluding in a style widely different from the usual tenor of their addresses on former occasions, they say, "Highly sensible of your majesty's paternal care and affection for your

people, we pray the Almighty that you may long reign in peace over a free, a happy, and united nation."

On the 2d of August, 1786, as the king was alighting from his carriage at the gate of St James's, an attempt was made on his life by an insane woman named Margaret Nicholson, who, under pretence of presenting a petition, endeavoured to stab him with a knife which was concealed in the paper. Fortunately the weapon was so much worn and so very thin that when she thrust it against his waistcoat it bent, and the king drew back uninjured, while the yeoman of the lodge seized her arm, and a footman wrested the knife from her grasp, at the moment she was about to repeat the blow. The king exhibited great coolness and humanity on this occasion. Margaret Nicholson afterwards underwent a long examination before the board of green cloth, and no doubt appearing of her insanity, she was consigned to Bethlehem hospital.<sup>3</sup>

Soon after the recess of parliament, in 1788, the king's health, which had been for some time infirm, became worse, and symptoms of mental aberration appeared. Parliament stood prorogued to the 20th of November. On the 14th of that month circular letters were addressed to the members of the legislature, signifying that the indisposition of the sovereign rendered it doubtful whether there would be a possibility of receiving his commands for the further prorogation of parliament. If not, in that case the two houses must of necessity assemble, and the attendance of the different members was earnestly requested. Parliament being accordingly assembled, the state of the king's health was formally notified to the house of peers by the lord-chancellor, and to the commons by Mr Pitt; and as the session of parliament could not be opened in the regular mode, an adjournment of fourteen days was recommended and adopted. Upon the re-assembling of parliament, December the 4th, a report of the board of privy council was presented

<sup>3</sup> The following account of this poor woman appeared in the 'European Magazine' of August, 1786: "Margaret Nicholson is said to have lived some years ago with a lady of quality in Brudenel-street, as her own servant; her general disposition of mind was of a reserved and thoughtful cast, seldom subject to the influence of the livelier sallies of mirth. This restraint of temper was considered by her fellow-servants as prudery. Her master's valet de chambre paid her his addresses: her conduct before the family was very reserved, and such in appearance as prevented them from discerning that he had any prospect of success with her; but one of the family happening to remain up after the rest were a-bed, in walking up stairs so as not to be heard, at a late hour, surprised the valet de chambre coming out of her bed-room. In such a discovery as this, every one knows how anxious the discoverer is to unburthen his mind; and next morning the servants were entertaining themselves at the expense of the reserved, as they called her, prude; the news soon reached the mistress's ears, and both the servants concerned were instantly discharged. They sought for a new place, where they lived still together in the same house; but quitted that also. Their attachment still subsisted, and they got into a third service; there her sweetheart slighted her, and paid his addresses to a person who had some property, whom he married; and then left his place to take an inn on the western road. This disappointment could not but affect the woman who was deserted, and she abandoned herself to solitude: intense thought upon one object debilitates the mind; and with a temper already prone to melancholy, an accumulation of thought and distress must increase intense thinking, which cannot but produce paroxysms of madness. Society and variety are necessary to remove the ill consequences of melancholy; neither of these it appears she sought; for even her brother acknowledged that she seldom called on him. After this she sought no more for a place as a servant, but betook herself to her industry by her needle."

to the two houses, containing an examination of the royal physicians ; and it was suggested, that, considering the extreme delicacy of the subject and the person concerned, parliament would do well to rest satisfied without any more direct or express information, especially as the examinations of council had been taken upon oath, which the house of commons had no power to administer : doubts, however, were started by Fox, Burke, and others of the same party, whether parliament could in this momentous case dispense with that sort of evidence on which they had been accustomed to proceed. As the minister's chief object was procrastination, the objection was too acceptable to be warmly contested, and therefore, after a trifling debate, a committee of twenty-one persons was appointed in each house to examine and report the sentiments of the royal physicians. The report of the committee was laid upon the table of the house of commons on the 10th of December, when a motion was made by Pitt, for the appointment of another committee to inspect the journals for precedents. "With respect to precedents, there were," said Fox, "notoriously none which applied to the present instance ; and he affirmed, that all that was requisite to their ultimate decision had been obtained by the report now lying upon their table. By that report they had ascertained the incapacity of the sovereign : and he advanced as a proposition deducible from the principles of the constitution, and the analogy of the law of hereditary succession, that whenever the sovereign was incapable of exercising the functions of his high office, the heir-apparent, if of full age and capacity, had as indisputable a claim to the exercise of the executive authority, in the name and on the behalf of the sovereign, during his incapacity, as in the case of his natural demise." Pitt immediately, with much apparent warmth, declared, "that the assertion which had been made by Fox was little short of treason against the constitution ; and he pledged himself to prove, that the heir-apparent in the instance in question, had no more right to the exercise of the executive power than any other person ; and that it belonged entirely to the two remaining branches of the legislature, to make such a provision for supplying the temporary deficiency as they might think proper. To assert an inherent right in the prince of Wales to assume the government, was virtually to revive those exploded ideas of the divine and indefeasible authority of princes, which had so justly sunk into contempt, and almost into oblivion. Kings and princes derive their power from the people, and to the people alone, through the organ of their representatives, did it appertain to decide in cases for which the constitution had made no specific or positive provision." The motion of Pitt was carried ; and on the 16th of December the minister moved two declaratory resolutions to the effect, first, that an interruption of the royal authority presently existed, and, secondly, that it was the duty of parliament to provide the means for supplying that defect, and conducting the government. A letter was then written by Pitt to the prince of Wales, informing his royal highness of the plan meant to be pursued : that the care of the king's person and the disposition of the royal household should be committed to the queen, who would by this means be vested with the patronage of four hundred places, amongst which were the great offices of lord-steward, lord-chamberlain, and the master of the horse. That the power of the prince should not extend to the granting any office, re-

version, or pension, for any other term than during the king's pleasure, nor to the conferring any peerage. In his reply to this communication, the prince said: "It was with deep regret that he perceived in the propositions of administration a project for introducing weakness, disorder, and insecurity into every branch of political business;—for separating the court from the state, and depriving government of its natural and accustomed support; a scheme for disconnecting authority to command service, from the power of animating it by reward; and for allotting to him all the invidious duties of the kingly station, without the means of softening them to the public by any one act of grace, favour, or benignity."

The regency bill had reached its last stage when it was suddenly announced that the king had completely recovered. On the 22d of February, 1789, his majesty addressed the following note to the premier: "The king renews with great satisfaction his communication with Mr Pitt, after the long suspension of their intercourse, owing to his very tedious and painful illness. He is fearful that during this interval, the public interests have suffered great inconvenience and difficulty. It is most desirable that immediate measures should be taken for restoring the functions of his government; and Mr Pitt will consult with the lord-chancellor to-morrow morning, upon the most expedient means for that purpose; and the king will receive Mr Pitt at Kew afterwards, about one o'clock." The next morning Pitt waited upon the king, who was quite rational, and among other pertinent observations, said: "I made several promises before my illness, and they must now be fulfilled." Shortly before he wrote to Pitt, he had inquired of his attendant, why a pier-glass in his apartment was covered with baize; the attendant, unwilling to confess that it was to prevent the king from perceiving what a dreadful alteration had taken place in his appearance, replied: "The glass, sire, was supposed to have reflected too much light." "How could that be," said the king, "when it is placed where no light can fall on it?" A little while after, on awaking from a sound and refreshing sleep, he said, "I have been in a strange delirium for some days past!" When informed that his illness had been of more than two months' duration, he remained in an attitude of devotion for several minutes, but made no further remark on the subject.

On coming abroad again for the first time since his recent illness, his majesty was received with loud acclamations by the populace, and was for a year or two highly popular; but the increasing distresses of the country, the success of the French arms on the continent, and the ceaseless efforts of political incendiaries at home, conspired to turn the tide of public feeling in an opposite direction. On the 29th of October, 1795, while his majesty was proceeding to the house of lords, a ball passed through both windows of his carriage. "We all instantly exclaimed," says Lord Onslow, "'This is a shot!'" His majesty showed, and I am persuaded felt, no alarm; much less did he fear. We proceeded to the house of lords, where the king read his speech with peculiar correctness, and even with less hesitation than usual. He joined in the conversation on the subject, while unrobing, with much less agitation than anybody else: and afterwards, on getting into the coach, he said, 'Well, my lords, one person is proposing this, and another is supposing that, forgetting that there is One above us all who disposes

of everything, and on whom alone we depend!' On our return to St James's, the mob threw stones into the coach, several of which hit the king, who took one out of the cuff of his coat, where it had lodged, and gave it to me, saying, 'I make you a present of this, as a mark of the civilities we have met with on our journey to-day.' " One of the horse-guards, observing a ruffian in the act of throwing a large stone at the king, would have cut the man down, had not his majesty put his head out of the window and commanded him on no account to shed blood. The mob were so violent and determined, that Storey's gate having been closed against them, they attempted to break it open with sledge-hammers, and would have succeeded had not the military interposed. The king alighted in safety at the palace; but the state-carriage was nearly demolished in its progress to the royal mews. Shortly afterwards he set out in his private coach towards the queen's house; but having now no guards to protect him, his life was in imminent danger. The mob attacked his vehicle with savage fury, and one miscreant was attempting to force the door, when an Irish gentleman, of great height and strength, took a brace of pistols from his pocket, and kept the mob off the carriage until it reached the palace, where, by main force, he cleared the way for his majesty to alight.

On the 15th of May, 1800, the king had two narrow escapes. In the morning of that day, while attending the field-exercise of a battalion of guards, during one of the volleys, a gentleman who was standing at a very little distance from the king was struck in the fleshy part of the thigh, in front, by a musket-ball. An examination of the cartouch-boxes of the soldiers took place, but no individual could be fixed upon as the perpetrator of the act. In the evening of the same day a more alarming and extraordinary circumstance occurred at Drury-lane theatre. At the moment when the king entered the royal box, a man in the pit, on the right-hand side of the orchestra, suddenly stood up and discharged a horse-pistol at him. Providentially a gentleman who sat near him had time to raise the arm of the assassin so as to direct the contents of the pistol towards the roof of the box. The king's behaviour on this occasion was above all praise. He showed no symptom of fear, but directed the actors to proceed with the performance of the evening, after the assassin had been secured and conveyed away for examination. The perpetrator of this act was a man of the name of Hadfield, a discharged soldier. It clearly appeared that he too was insane. He was indicted for high treason, but the jury were satisfied that he was of unsound mind, and he was committed to Bethlehem hospital. When the king returned to the queen's house, he said, "I hope and pray that the poor creature who has committed the rash assault upon me, may enjoy as sound a repose as I trust that I shall this night!" He adopted no additional precautions for his personal safety, notwithstanding these repeated attempts on his life, observing to those who advised him to do so: "I know that any man in my dominions, who chooses to sacrifice his own life, may easily take away mine; but I hope, if any one attempts such an act, he will do it promptly, without any circumstances of barbarity!" Sheridan soon afterwards complimented him for the extraordinary resolution he had displayed. "Had your majesty abruptly quitted the theatre," said he, "the confusion would have been awful." "I should have despised myself for ever,"



replied the king, "had I but stirred a single inch: a man, on such an occasion, should need no prompting, but immediately feel what is his duty, and do it."

In 1801 Pitt retired from office, on account of the king refusing any concessions to the Catholics, while the minister considered himself pledged to some further measure of relief by the act of union. The king was impressed with the idea that he could not consent to admit his Catholic subjects to a share in the constitution without violating his coronation oath. Pitt was succeeded by Addington, who retained the seals of office till 1804, when Pitt and his friends again came into power. The death of his favourite minister, in 1806, was a severe blow to the king, who was nevertheless ready to dismiss any ministry on the same terms that had previously lost him the services of Pitt. In 1807, when Lord Grenville endeavoured to obtain the king's consent to a measure of emancipation, he declared, "that although he had firmness sufficient to quit his throne, and retire to a cottage, or place his neck on a block, if his people required it, yet he had not resolution to break the oath which he had taken, in the most solemn manner, at his coronation!" Shortly afterwards Lord Grenville received a note from the king, stating, that his majesty would be ready to receive the resignations of his ministers at noon on the following day. The premier and his colleagues, accordingly, gave up their seals of office the next morning; and the Perceval administration succeeded.

On the 25th of October, 1809, when the king entered on the fiftieth year of his reign, a jubilee was celebrated throughout the kingdom, and the venerable monarch was sensibly affected by the universal demonstration of attachment on this occasion. His public life was now drawing towards a close; his sight was nearly gone, and his faculties considerably impaired. In the subsequent eventful transactions of Britain, George III. was a cypher.

On the 20th of December, 1810, three resolutions, framed on the precedents of 1788-9, were proposed by Perceval, as preparatory to the introduction of a bill for supplying the defect in the personal exercise of the royal authority. By this bill the prince of Wales was appointed regent, and empowered to exercise the royal authority in the name of his majesty. He was, for a specified time, restrained from granting peerages, or summoning heirs-apparent, or appointing to titles in abeyance; likewise from granting offices in reversion, or for a longer time than during pleasure, excepting those allowed by law to be granted for life, or during good behaviour, as well as pensions to the chancellor, judges, &c. These restrictions were to terminate on the 1st of February, 1812, provided parliament should have been sitting six weeks, and should be then assembled. The care of his majesty's person and the direction of his household were vested in the queen, who was to be assisted by a council, the members of which were, the archbishops of Canterbury and York, the duke of Montrose, the earl of Winchelsea, the earl of Aylesford, Lord Eldon, Lord Ellenborough, and Sir William Grant. If his majesty should be restored to health, the queen and her council were to notify that event by an instrument transmitted to the privy council, who were to assemble and make entry of it; after which the king by his sign-manual might require them to assemble, and at his pleasure direct proclamation to issue, when the powers of the act

were to cease. A keen debate followed, but ministers carried their point by the small majority of 224 to 200. The remainder of this sovereign's history needs not to be here sketched. Reason never again resumed her seat in his mind. He died at Windsor on the 29th of January, 1820, in the 82d year of his age.

Much as there is to admire in the personal character of George III. we can with difficulty admit his claim to praise as a constitutional sovereign. Throughout his public life he manifested a strong disposition to be his own minister, and occasionally placed the kingly prerogatives in perilous opposition to the resolutions of the nation's representatives. His interference with the deliberation of the upper house,—as in the case of Fox's India bill,—was equally ill-judged and dangerous. The separation of America from the mother-country, at the time it took place, was the result of the king's personal feelings and interference with the ministry. The war with France was in part at least attributable to the views and wishes of the sovereign of this country. His obstinate refusal to grant any concessions to his Catholic subjects, kept his cabinet perpetually hanging on the brink of dissolution, and threatened the dismemberment of the kingdom.<sup>4</sup> He has been often praised for firmness, but it was in too many instances the firmness of obstinacy, —a dogged adherence to an opinion once pronounced, or a resolution once formed. Still he had many redeeming qualities, his moral conduct was unimpeachable; he was indeed sincerely and unaffectedly pious, and gave much of his time to the offices of religion in his closet and family.<sup>5</sup> His manners were affable and courteous, his habits simple and unostentatious. No man in his dominions more enjoyed the comforts of domestic life than he did; and no parent could evince a tenderer regard for his children. The last shock which upset his mental powers, or rather confirmed his malady, was given, it is believed, by the death of one of his daughters, the princess Amelia. His intellectual powers

<sup>4</sup> It is due to the memory of George III., while instancing his inflexible opposition to Catholic emancipation, to admit that no one better understood and practised religious toleration than he did. Many of his own servants were dissenters. "The Methodists," said he, "are a very quiet kind of people, and will disturb nobody; and if I learn that any person in my employ disturbs them, he shall instantly be dismissed." Malowny, a Catholic priest, having been convicted of celebrating mass in the county of Surrey, and the judge who tried him having humanely recommended him as a proper object for royal mercy, the king said: "God forbid that difference in religious opinion should sanction persecution, or admit of one man within my realms suffering unjustly. Issue a pardon for Mr Malowny, and see that he be set at liberty."

<sup>5</sup> An eminent bishop having suffered some fashionable assemblies to take place under his roof, the king rebuked him, by letter, in the following terms: "My good Lord Primate, I could not delay giving you the notification of the grief and concern with which my breast was affected, at receiving an authentic information that routs have made their way into your palace. At the same time, I must signify to you my sentiments on this subject, which hold these levities and vain dissipations as utterly inexpedient, if not unlawful, to pass in a residence for many centuries devoted to divine studies, religious retirement, and the extensive exercise of charity and benevolence;—I add,—in a place where so many of your predecessors have led their lives in such sanctity as has thrown lustre on the pure religion they professed and adorned. From the dissatisfaction with which you must perceive I behold these improprieties, not to speak in harsher terms, and still more pious principles, I trust you will suppress them immediately; so that I may not have occasion to show any further marks of my displeasure, or to interpose in a different manner. May God take your grace into his Almighty protection!—I remain, &c." How few crowned heads could—or, at least, would—have bestowed such an admonition on their worldly-minded prelates!

have perhaps been too much underrated. The man who could not only sustain a prolonged conversation with such men as Fox and Johnson, but create a favourable impression on their minds of his mental resources and information, could not be a weak man.

## Charles Townshend.

BORN A. D. 1725.—DIED A. D. 1767.

CHARLES, second son of the third Viscount Townshend, was born on the 29th of August, 1725. He entered parliament as member for Yarmouth in 1747, and continued to represent that place till 1761 when he was elected for Harwich.

In 1756 he was appointed a member of the privy council; and on the accession of George III. became secretary at war in the administration which drove Pitt from office. In 1765 he was appointed chancellor of the exchequer and paymaster-general; and, in 1766, a lord of the treasury. This able but unsteady minister was cut off during the recess of parliament in 1767, by putrid fever, at the very moment that his great abilities were beginning to command the attention of parliament. He is now chiefly known by Burke's sketch of him in his famous speech on American taxation:

"Before this splendid orb"—said the orator, alluding to Chatham—"had entirely set, and while the western horizon was in a blaze with his descending glory, on the opposite quarter of the heavens arose another luminary, and for his hour became lord of the ascendant. This light, too, is passed and set for ever! I speak of Charles Townshend, officially the re-producer of this fatal scheme,—American taxation; whom I cannot even now remember without some degree of sensibility. In truth, he was the delight and ornament of this house, and the charm of every private society which he honoured with his presence. Perhaps there never arose in this country, nor in any country, a man of more pointed and finished wit, and, where his passions were not concerned, of a more refined, exquisite, and penetrating judgment. If he had not so great a stock, as some have had who flourished formerly, of knowledge long treasured up, he knew better by far than any man I ever was acquainted with, how to bring together, within a short time, all that was necessary to establish, to illustrate, and to decorate that side of the question he supported. He stated his matter skilfully and powerfully; he particularly excelled in a most luminous explanation and display of his subject. His style of argument was neither trite and vulgar, nor subtle and abstruse. He hit the house just between wind and water; and not being troubled with too anxious a zeal for any matter in question, he was never more tedious, or more earnest, than the pre-conceived opinions and present temper of his hearers required, with whom he was always in perfect unison. He conformed exactly to the temper of the house; and he seemed to guide, because he was always sure to follow it. Many of my hearers, who never saw that prodigy, Charles Townshend, cannot know what a ferment he was able to excite in every thing, by the violent ebullition of his mixed virtues and failings; for failings he had undoubtedly. But he had no failings which were not owing to

a noble cause; to an ardent, generous, perhaps an immoderate passion for fame,—a passion which is the instinct of all great souls. He worshipped that goddess wheresoever she appeared; but he paid his particular devotions to her in her favourite habitation,—in her chosen temple, the house of commons. That fear of displeasing those who ought most to be pleased, betrayed him sometimes into the other extreme. He had voted, and in the year 1765, had been an advocate, for the stamp act. He therefore attended at the private meeting in which resolutions leading to its repeal were settled; and he would have spoken for that measure too, if illness had not prevented him. The very next session, as the fashion of this world passeth away, the repeal began to be in as bad odour as the stamp act had been before. To conform to the temper which began to prevail, and to prevail mostly among those most in power, he declared that revenue must be had out of America. Instantly he was tied down to his engagements, and the whole body of courtiers drove him onward. Here this extraordinary man, then chancellor of the exchequer, found himself in great straits: to please universally was the object of his life; but to tax and to please, no more than to love and to be wise, is not given to men. However, he attempted it. He was truly the child of the house. He never thought, did, or said any thing, but with a view to you. He every day adapted himself to your disposition, and adjusted himself before it, as at a looking-glass. He had observed that several persons, infinitely his inferiors in all respects, had formerly rendered themselves considerable in this house by one method alone. The fortune of such men was a temptation too great to be resisted by one to whom a single whiff of incense withheld gave much greater pain than he received delight in the clouds of it which daily rose around him from the prodigal superstition of innumerable admirers. He was a candidate for contradictory honours; and his great aim was to make those agree in admiration of him who never agreed in any thing else."

### **Manners, Marquess of Granby.**

BORN A. D. 1721.—DIED A. D. 1770.

THIS nobleman was the heir-apparent of John Manners, third duke of Rutland, by Bridget, daughter and heir of Sutton, second and last Lord Lexington. He was educated at Eton, and at Trinity college, Cambridge; and entered parliament, at an early age, for the town of Grantham. In 1745 he raised a regiment of infantry, and accompanied the duke of Cumberland into Scotland. On the 4th of May, 1755, he received a major-general's commission; and in February, 1759, was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-general, and sent out to Germany as second in command to Lord George Sackville.

After the battle of Minden, he was highly complimented by Prince Ferdinand at the expense of Lord George; and on the disgrace of the latter officer, as related in our sketch of him, the marquess was appointed to succeed him in his military command. It is well-known that these two noblemen were never cordial friends; but the evidence which the marquess gave on Lord George's trial was highly honourable to

himself, and generous to his rival. "He showed," says Lord Orford, in his memoirs of the reign of George II., "an honourable and compassionate tenderness; so far from exaggerating the minutest circumstance, he palliated or suppressed whatever might load the prisoner, and seemed to study nothing but how to avoid appearing a party against him. So inseparable in his bosom were valour and good nature." In the battles of Warburg and Phillinghausen the marquess reaped fresh laurels. "Towards the end of the war," says an anonymous writer who had served under him, "when the army was so situated that, if a rising ground on the left had been taken possession of by the French, it might have been attended by the worst consequences,—and when the generals destined to lead a corps to occupy it, declared the service impracticable,—Lord Granby arose from a sick-bed in the middle of the night, assumed the command of the corps, marched with a fever upon him in an inclement season, took possession of the post, and secured the army." "My Lord Granby's generosity," adds the same writer, "knows no bounds. Often have I seen his generous hand stretched out to supply the wants of the needy soldier; nor did the meanest follower of the camp go hungry from his door. His house was open equally to British and foreigners; his table was hospitality itself; and his generous, open countenance gave a hearty welcome to all his guests."

In 1760, during his absence with the army, he was appointed a member of the privy council. In 1763 he was constituted master-general of the ordnance; and in 1766, commander-in-chief of the army. He died suddenly of an attack of gout in the stomach, on the 20th of October, 1770.

His lordship's merits appear on the whole to have been overestimated by his contemporaries. His courage was much less questionable than his military talents. Soon after his investment with the command-in-chief, he was selected by Junius for the subject of his terrible invective. "If," said his masked assailant, "it be generosity to accumulate in his own person and family a number of lucrative employments,—to provide, at the public expense, for every creature that bears the name of Manners,—and, neglecting the merit and services of the rest of the army, to heap promotions on his favourites and dependants, the present commander-in-chief is the most generous man alive." And again: "If the discipline of the army be in any degree preserved, what thanks are due to a man whose cares, notoriously confined to filling up vacancies, have degraded the office of commander-in-chief into a broker of commissions?" Of this attack the marquess himself took no notice, but Sir William Draper addressed a letter to the printer of the 'Public Advertiser,' in his lordship's defence, which, however, had the effect of drawing Junius forward to fresh and more violent invective. He insisted that the army had been grossly neglected; and though he acquitted the marquess of the baseness of selling commissions, he again asserted that his military cares had never extended beyond the disposal of vacancies; adding that, in his distribution of them, he had consulted nothing but parliamentary interest, or the gratification of his immediate dependants. "Without disputing Lord Granby's courage," he said in his letter to Sir William Draper, "we are yet to learn in what article of military knowledge, nature has been so very liberal to his mind. If you have served with him, you ought to have pointed out some in-

stances of able disposition and well-concerted enterprise, which might fairly be attributed to his capacity as a general. You say that he has acquired nothing but honour in the field. Is the ordnance nothing? Are the Blues nothing? Is the command of the army, with all the patronage annexed to it, nothing? Where he got these nothings I know not; but you at least ought to have told us where he deserved them."

## Charles Yorke.

BORN A. D. 1723.—DIED A. D. 1770.

THE honourable Charles Yorke, second son of Lord-chancellor Hardwicke, by Mary Cocks, niece of Lord Somers, was born 10th January, 1723. He received his education under Dr Newcomb at Hackney, whence he removed to Cambridge, and was admitted of Bennet college the 13th June, 1739, under the tuition of Mr Francis Aylmer. Here he pursued his studies for some years with unremitting attention, and then entered himself of Lincoln's inn, where he was called to the bar. His application and eloquence soon recommended him to the notice of the profession, and early produced him a considerable share of business. On the alarm of a designed invasion from France in 1743, he composed and published a tract on the law of treason, entitled, 'Some Considerations on the Law of Forfeiture for High Treason; occasioned by a clause in the late Act for making it treason to correspond with the Pretender's sons, or any of their agents,' &c. 8vo. This volume was afterwards republished in 1746 and 1748 with improvements.

He had been, in 1747, appointed, together with his brother John, joint clerk of the crown in Chancery, and soon after he became attorney-general to the princess of Wales. In 1747 he was chosen member for Ryegate,—a borough he continued ever after to represent. On the 3d of July, 1751, he succeeded Mr Joddrell as solicitor to the East India company; and continuing to advance in the profession, on the 6th November, 1756, was appointed solicitor-general, which post he held until the 27th December, 1761, when he was promoted to that of attorney-general.

He had now arrived at that situation, the next step from which is generally to the highest honour and elevation the law affords; but the change of ministry obliged him, 2d November, 1763, to resign his post. At the same time he took his seat outside of the bar; but this measure being attended with some inconvenience to the practitioners, he accepted a patent of precedence to take place of all after the attorney-general. Early in 1770 Lord Camden resigned the great seal; and on the 17th of January, Mr Yorke was prevailed upon reluctantly to become his successor, with the title of Lord Morden, Baron Morden, in the county of Cambridge. He survived this appointment but a few days, dying before the patent for his peerage was completed.

Mr Yorke was twice married. By his first wife, Catharine, daughter of the Rev. Dr William Freeman of Hammells, in the county of Hertford, who died, July 10, 1759, he had one son, who became earl of Hardwicke. Besides some of the Athenian letters printed in his bro-

ther's collection, Mr Yorke proved the truth of Mr Hawkins Browne's observation,—

' They err who think the muses not allied  
To Themis.'———

Three poems of singular taste and delicacy, by Mr Yorke, are to be found in Nichols's 'Collection of Poems,' vol. vi. p. 297.

## John, Duke of Bedford.

BORN A. D. 1710.—DIED A. D. 1771.

THIS nobleman was born on the 30th of September, 1710. In 1744 he was added to the list of privy counsellors, and next year made lord-lieutenant of Bedfordshire. In what was at the time called 'the Broad-bottom ministry,' from its professing to be composed of all parties, the duke of Bedford was first lord of the admiralty; and, in 1748, he was appointed secretary of state on the resignation of the earl of Chesterfield. On the dismissal of Lord Sandwich, the duke resigned, and his place was filled by Lord Holderness. In 1756, on the elevation of Pitt to the premiership, the duke of Bedford was appointed to the chief government of Ireland. In the new ministry of 1763 the office of president of the council, vacant by the death of Lord Grenville, was given to the duke of Bedford; whose influence was so great in the government that this ministry came to be generally distinguished as the duke of Bedford's ministry.

In the session of 1765, the ministers, in the language of Junius, "having endeavoured to exclude the dowager (princess of Wales) out of the regency bill, the earl of Bute determined to dismiss them. Upon this the duke of Bedford demanded an audience of the king,—reproached him in plain terms with duplicity, baseness, falsehood, treachery, and hypocrisy,—repeatedly gave him the lie,—and left him in strong convulsions." At this crisis the king made unsuccessful overtures to Pitt. Horace Walpole writing to Lord Hertford, under date 20th August, 1765, says: "Words cannot paint the confusion into which every thing is thrown. The four ministers,—I mean the duke of Bedford, Grenville, and the two secretaries,—acquainted their master yesterday that they adhere to one another, and shall all resign to-morrow, and perhaps must be recalled on Wednesday." On the 24th he writes: "On Wednesday the ministers dictated their terms; you will not expect much moderation, and, accordingly, there was not a grain."

The duke died on the 15th of January, 1771. He is accused by Junius of having outraged the royal dignity with peremptory conditions, and then condescended to the humility of soliciting an interview with his sovereign; of mixing with jockeys, gamesters, blasphemers, gladiators, and buffoons; of openly avowing, in a court of justice, the sale of a borough, the purchase-money of which, it is added in a note, he was compelled to refund; of being the little tyrant of a little corporation; and of having received private compensation for sacrificing public interests while ambassador to the court of France. "Your friends will ask," continues the anonymous libeller, "Whither shall this unhappy old

man retire? Can he remain in the metropolis, where his life has been so often threatened, and his palace so often attacked? If he return to Wooburn, scorn and mockery await him. He must create a solitude round his estate, if he would avoid the face of reproach and derision. At Plymouth, his destruction would be more than probable; at Exeter, inevitable." "In another kingdom, indeed," Junius ironically adds, alluding to the fact of the duke having been governor-general of Ireland, "the blessings of his administration have been more sensibly felt; his virtues better understood; or, at worst, they will not, for him alone, forget their hospitality. As well might Verres have returned to Sicily!"

### Henry Fox, Lord Holland.

BORN A. D. 1705.—DIED A. D. 1774.

THIS nobleman was the second son of Mr Stephen Fox, by his second wife, Christian Hope, daughter of the Rev. Charles Hope of Naseby in Lincolnshire. He was born in September, 1705. He had the misfortune to lose both his parents while he was yet a youth; and was early allowed to rush into the gaieties and frivolities of fashionable life. He became a reckless gamester, and quickly dissipated the greater part of his patrimony. Family occurrences restored him to independence, but the habits of his youth clung to him throughout life.

He left Oxford in 1724, and spent some years on the continent. At Aubigny he became acquainted with the duchess of Portsmouth, the mistress of Charles II., whose descendant he some years afterwards married; and it is said, that from her own lips he then heard what her son has stated in his historical work, that it was her firm persuasion that Charles died of poison. While abroad, Fox travelled for some time with Lord Hervey, one of the most accomplished noblemen of his day, the antagonist of Pope in satire, and of Middleton on Roman history. He was second to Hervey in his duel with Pulteney; but the two friends ultimately quarrelled about some matters not very creditable to either.<sup>1</sup> Another of his noble friends was Lord Sunderland, afterwards duke of Marlborough, whose interest first introduced him to parliament. The intimacy of these two friends was cordial and uninterrupted to the last.

Fox was returned to parliament, in 1735, for Hindon in Wiltshire. He espoused the cause of Sir Robert Walpole; and as his abilities were conspicuous, the minister was courteous and grateful. In 1737, Fox was appointed surveyor to the board of works; in 1743, on the fall of Sir Robert's opponents, he was appointed one of the commissioners of the treasury; and in 1746, soon after the abortive attempt of Lord Grenville to assume the premiership, he was named secretary at war. Two years before this latter elevation, Fox had married Lady Caroline Lennox, eldest daughter of the duke of Richmond. The marriage was a clandestine one, and at first gave great offence to the lady's family; but with the rise of Fox in public life and political influence, his noble father-in-law's prejudices towards him softened and ultimately he was fully recognised by his wife's relatives.

<sup>1</sup> Chesterfield.



Fox was a warm adherent of the duke of Cumberland, and drew upon himself no small share of the unpopularity which attached to that prince. He was accused of arbitrary principles, and branded as one of the most corrupt members of a corrupt political school. Still his talents, his energy, his habits of business, gave him great influence in the house; nor was the king displeased at Fox's adherence to the duke. In the discussions on the regency bill, Pitt and Fox, the two most rising men of the day, and upon one or other of whom it was generally expected the premiership would ultimately devolve, began to manifest considerable discordance of opinion and political views. Two parties were at this time secretly struggling for pre-eminence in the cabinet. One of these consisted of the Pelhams and their adherents; the other was headed by the duke of Cumberland and Bedford. The former party patronised Pitt; the latter, Fox; and then was begun that rivalry betwixt these two great men which was perpetuated in their still greater sons. The Pelhamites were successful in the struggle; but Fox was retained in office under them; and on the death of Mr Pelham, in 1754, was appointed secretary of state by the new premier, the duke of Newcastle. It seems probable that Pitt would have been preferred in this instance to his rival, but for the inveterate antipathy which the king was known to entertain towards him. Fox, however, insisted on being leader in the house of commons, and having a voice in the employment of the secret service money, and the nomination of the treasury members; and on these terms being refused, he declined the new secretaryship. It is believed that the princess of Wales and the chancellor prompted the duke of Newcastle to break with Fox on this occasion; and although the king affected to interfere in the negotiation, and personally requested Fox to retain the office of secretary of state, yet he either did not or would not understand the reasons which Fox offered as the ground of his refusal, and declared that he would never again obtrude his favours on any one. Sir Thomas Robinson, a protégé of the duke, was appointed secretary of state and ministerial leader in the house of commons; and Fox, although he retained his office of secretary at war, became a leader of one of the opposition parties. In the next session the two rivals, Pitt and Fox, finding themselves equally slighted by the premier, united their opposition, after a formal reconciliation. The one singled out Lord Mansfield, the then solicitor-general, as his victim in debate; the other amused the house at the expense of his successor in office, Sir Thomas Robinson.

An opposition so formidably headed could not be long resisted; and the premier made overtures first to Pitt, and latterly to Fox. With the former he failed; but Fox, through the mediation of Lord Waldegrave, was brought to terms, and in November, 1755, appointed secretary of state. Sir Thomas Robinson was disposed of by being made master of the wardrobe. Fox's triumph, however, was but of short duration; the duke secretly hated him. The king, chagrined at the dismissal of Sir Thomas, and still more by the events of the war, and above all the loss of Minorca, conceived a dislike to the new secretary. Fox saw the approaching storm, and foresaw also the instability of the duke's ministry; he resolved to quit the sinking vessel, and suddenly threw up his employments. On the 11th of November, the duke gave in his own resignation, and the duke of Devonshire became premier with Pitt as secre-

tary of state. This new ministry was driven from office in a few months; but eventually a ministry was arranged embracing both Pitt and Fox: the former as secretary of state and leader of the house of commons,—the latter as paymaster of the forces. While in this highly lucrative office, which he held till 1765, Fox was boldly accused of enormous speculation. In an address from the city of London he was described as “the public defaulter of unaccounted millions.” The charge, though evidently conveyed in terms of gross exaggeration, was not altogether foundationless. He amassed a princely fortune while in office, notwithstanding his well-known habits of luxury and profusion.

In 1763, at the solicitation of Lord Bute, Fox undertook to defend the peace of Fontainebleau in the house of commons. He discharged his task successfully, and received a peerage in reward. On the 6th of May, 1762, his wife was created Baroness Holland, and on the 16th of April, 1763, he was created Baron Holland of Foxley in the county of Wilts. On quitting office he made an excursion to the continent, and did not return to England until the autumn of 1768. The latter years of his life were spent in retirement. He died at Holland house, Kensington, on the 1st of July, 1774. By his marriage with Lady Caroline Lennox he had four sons: Stephen, who succeeded to his title; Henry, who died in infancy; Charles James, and Henry Edward.

Lord Holland was a statesman of high talent, and of considerable integrity for the times in which he lived. His first appearances in parliament were unpromising; but he rapidly improved, and became at last the most formidable rival of one of the greatest masters of oratory. Chesterfield says, and with too much apparent truth, that he had no fixed principles either in religion or morals; to his family he was indulgent beyond all prudence,—to his friends generous and sociable to excess. His manners were polished and uniformly urbane.

### **Clive, Baron Plassey.**

BORN A. D. 1725.—DIED A. D. 1774.

ROBERT CLIVE was born at Styche, near Market-Drayton, in Shropshire, on the 29th of September, 1725. His father, Richard Clive, inherited the estate of Styche, the ancient possession of his family, but followed the business of the law. In his early youth, Robert was sent to a private school which was kept by Dr Eaton, at Lostock in Cheshire. The doctor soon observed that, in courage and sagacity, young Clive far surpassed his fellows, and is said to have predicted in the schoolboy the future hero. “If,” said he, “that lad should live to be a man, and an opportunity be given for the exertion of his talents, few names will be greater than his.” From this school, at the age of eleven, he was removed to another at Market-Drayton, whence he was sent to Merchant-tailor’s school, London. He did not long continue at the last-mentioned seminary, his father having intrusted him to the care of Mr Sterling, of Hemel-Hempstead, a village in Hertfordshire, with whom he remained till he obtained the appointment of a writer in the service of the East India company. From a dislike to constraint, and an abhorrence of compulsion, the academical attainments of young

Clive seldom obtained or deserved much applause from his masters, who all agreed in giving him the character of the most unlucky boy they ever had in their schools. However, after his arrival in India, he devoted some of his leisure hours to study, and improved himself in classical literature.

It was in 1743 that Mr Clive was appointed a writer in the service of the East India company. He arrived at Madras in the year 1744, in the 19th year of his age. The same dislike to the drudgery of the desk,—the same impatience of control,—which distinguished him at school, still marked his character, and rendered his appointment as troublesome to his superiors as it was irksome to himself. On one occasion his conduct to the secretary was so inconsistent with what was supposed to be the proper subordination of office, that the governor, to whom it was reported, commanded him to ask the secretary's pardon. The submission was made in terms of extreme contempt; but the secretary received it graciously, and invited him to dinner,—“No, Sir,” replied Clive, “the governor did not command me to dine with you!”

On the surrender of Madras to the French admiral, Monsieur de la Bourdonnais, in September, 1746, the company's servants, both civil and military, became prisoners on parole. But as Monsieur Dupleix, commander-in-chief of the French forces in India, and who was not present at the surrender, refused to ratify the treaty, the English were made prisoners to the town. The English on their part considered their engagement to Bourdonnais as broken by this act, and thought themselves at liberty to make their escape when an opportunity should offer. Among others, Clive, disguised as a Moor, escaped to St David's, about 21 miles to the south of Madras.

Shortly after his arrival at this place, he happened to be engaged in a party at cards with two ensigns, who were detected in a combination to cheat the rest of the company. They had won large sums, which, on their knavery being proved, the losers refused to pay; but the threats of the two gamblers at last intimidated all but Clive, who persisted in his refusal to pay his losses, and accepted the challenge which the boldness of them gave. Clive delivered his fire; but his antagonist, as each had only a single pistol, reserved his, and, quitting his ground, presented the pistol to Clive's head, and bade him ask his life. After some hesitation Clive complied. But on his antagonist telling him he must also recant the expressions he had used to his dishonour, and promise payment of the money, or that otherwise he would fire. “Fire, and be d—d!” exclaimed Clive; “I said you cheated me—I say so still—nor will I ever pay you!” The ensign, finding all remonstrance vain, called him a madman, and threw away his pistol. When Clive was complimented by his friends on his behaviour on this occasion, he made the following remark: “The man has given me my life, and I have no right in future to mention his behaviour at the card-table; although I will never pay him, nor ever keep him company.” In other contests with some of his brother-officers, Clive displayed the same intrepidity and the same rashness.

In 1747, disgusted with his civil employment, and weary of an idle life at St David's, Clive solicited and obtained a commission in the military service. The events of the years 1747 and 1748 gave him few opportunities of exerting the talents he possessed; yet even in these

few he exhibited such proofs of an ardent, inflexible mind, as raised the admiration, and won for him the confidence of the soldiers. After the capture of Madras, the French obtained the ascendancy through the whole Carnatic; but the arrival of Admiral Boscawen with 2000 regular troops, in July, 1748, raised the hopes of the government of St David's, and determined them to retrieve their sinking reputation by an attack on Pondicherry, a neighbouring fort, and the principal settlement. At this siege our young ensign distinguished himself by his gallant behaviour in the defence of the advanced trench. The season for military operations being over, the troops remained inactive at St David's; and the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle being afterwards concluded, Lieutenant Clive, to whose active mind the idleness which in time of peace attends a soldier's life was extremely irksome, returned to the civil establishment, and was admitted to the same rank as that which he would have held if he had never quitted the civil employment. His income was now considerably increased by his appointment to the office of commissary of the British troops,—an appointment which the friendship of Major Lawrence procured him. He had not been long settled at Madras, when he was seized with a fever of the nervous kind, which greatly injured his constitution, and of which he felt the effects to the end of his life, when not engaged in active service.

In order to understand the nature of those military operations in which Clive was afterwards engaged in the East Indies, it will be necessary here to take some notice of the state of affairs in that country. After the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which an end was put to hostilities between the English and French, M. Dupleix, a man of courage and abilities, who commanded the French force in India, began by his intrigues to sow the seeds of dissension among the nabobs, in hopes thereby to increase the influence of France in Hindostan. Nizam Al-muluck, the mogul's viceroy of the Deccan, having the right of nominating a governor of the Carnatic,—more generally known by the name of the Nabob of Arcot,—appointed Anaverdy Khan to that office in the year 1745. The viceroy dying, was succeeded in his subahship, by his second son Nazirzing, whom the mogul confirmed. He was opposed in his pretensions by his own cousin Muzapherzing, who had recourse to the assistance of M. Dupleix, and obtained from him a reinforcement of Europeans and artillery. Thus reinforced, and joined by one Chunda Saib, an active Indian chief, he took the field against his kinsman Nazirzing, who was supported by a body of English troops under Colonel Lawrence. The French, dreading an engagement, retired in the night; and Muzapherzing, seeing himself abandoned by his own troops, appealed to the clemency of his cousin, who spared his life, but detained him as a state-prisoner. In this situation, he formed a conspiracy against his kinsman's life, with Nazirzing's prime minister, and the nabobs of Cadupab and Condaneor, then in his camp; and the conspirators were encouraged in their scheme by Dupleix and Chunda Saib, who had retired to Pondicherry. Thus stimulated, the conspirators murdered Nazirzing in his camp, and proclaimed Muzapherzing viceroy of the Deccan. In the tents of the murdered viceroy they found an immense treasure, of which a great share fell to M. Dupleix, whom the usurper, Muzapherzing, associated in the government with himself. The Frenchman immediately assumed the state and formali-

ties of an eastern prince; and he and his colleague, Muzapherzing, appointed Chunda Saib nabob of Arcot. Anaverdy Khan, the late nabob, had been defeated and slain by Muzapherzing and Chunda Saib, with the assistance of the French auxiliaries, in 1749; his son Mahommed Ali Khan put himself under the protection of the English at Madras, and was confirmed by Nazirzing as his father's successor in the nabobship or government of Arcot. This government, therefore, was disputed between Mahommed Ali Khan, appointed by the legal viceroy Nazirzing, supported by the English company, and Chunda Saib, nominated by the usurper Muzapherzing, and protected by Dupleix, who commanded at Pondicherry. Muzapherzing did not long survive his usurpation. In 1751 the same nabobs who had elevated him to his kinsman's place, thinking themselves ill-rewarded for their services, fell upon him suddenly, routed his troops, put him to death, and next day proclaimed Sallabatzing, brother to Nazirzing, viceroy of the Deccan. On the other hand, the mogul appointed Gauzedy Khan, who was the elder brother of Sallabatzing; and this prince confirmed Mahommed Ali Khan in the government of Arcot. But the affairs of the mogul's court were then in such confusion, that he could not spare an army to support the nomination he had made. Chunda Saib, nabob of Arcot, having been deposed by the mogul, who placed Anaverdy Khan in his room, resolved to recover his government by force, and had recourse to the French general at Pondicherry, who reinforced him with 2000 sepoys, and 420 French troops, on condition that, if he proved successful in his enterprise, he should cede to the French the town of Velur, in the neighbourhood of Pondicherry, with its dependencies, consisting of forty-five villages. Thus reinforced, he defeated his rival, Anaverdy Khan, who lost his life in the engagement, re-assumed the government of Arcot, and punctually performed the conditions which had been stipulated by his French allies. Mahommed Ali Khan, at the death of his father, had fled to Tiruchirapalli, and solicited the assistance of the English, who favoured him with a reinforcement of money, men, and ammunition, under the conduct of Major Stringer Lawrence, a brave and experienced officer. They now detached Captain Cope to put Tiruchirapalli in the posture of defence. The two armies, being pretty equal in strength, lay encamped in sight of each other a whole month; during which nothing happened but a few skirmishes, which generally terminated to the advantage of the English auxiliaries. Such was the state of the company's affairs when Clive resumed the military character.

Having obtained a captain's commission, he undertook to conduct a detachment into the province of Arcot; and accordingly began his march at the head of 210 Europeans, and 500 sepoys. Such was the resolution, secrecy, and despatch, with which Captain Clive conducted this enterprise, that the enemy knew nothing of his motions until he was in possession of the capital, which he took without opposition. The inhabitants, expecting to be plundered, offered him a large sum to spare their city; but they derived their security from the generosity and discretion of the conqueror. He refused the proffered ransom, and issued a proclamation, intimating that those who were willing to remain in their houses should be protected from insult and injury, and the rest have leave to retire with all their effects, except provisions, for which

he promised to pay the full value. By this wise conduct he so conciliated the affections of the people, that even those who quitted the place supplied him with exact intelligence of the enemy's designs, when he was besieged in the sequel. The fort of Arcot was in a little time invested by Rajah Saib, son of Chunda Saib, at the head of a numerous army; and the operations of the siege were conducted by European engineers. Though their approaches were retarded by the repeated and resolute sallies of Clive, they at length effected two breaches which were supposed to be practicable, and on the 14th of October, 1751, advanced to a general assault. But Clive, having received intimation of their design, had made such preparations for their reception, that they were repulsed in every quarter with great loss, and obliged to raise the siege with the utmost precipitation. Captain Clive was no sooner reinforced by a detachment under Captain Kirkpatrick from Trichinopoly, than he marched in pursuit of the enemy, whom he overtook in the plains of Aranie. Here, on the 3d of December, he attacked them with irresistible impetuosity, and, after an obstinate fight, obtained a complete victory at a very small expense. The forts of Timery, Caujeveram, and Aranie, now surrendered to the terror of his name, rather than to the force of his arms; and he returned to Fort St David's in triumph.

He had enjoyed a very few weeks of repose, when he was again summoned to the field by fresh incursions of the enemy. In the beginning of the year 1752 he marched with a small detachment to Madras, where he was joined by a reinforcement from Bengal, the whole number not exceeding 300 Europeans. He assembled a body of the natives, that he might have at least the appearance of an army, and with these proceeded to Koveripauk, about 15 miles from Arcot, where he found the French and Indians, consisting of 1500 sepoys, 1700 horse, a body of natives, and 150 Europeans, with eight pieces of cannon. Though they were advantageously posted and intrenched, and the day was already far advanced, Clive advanced against them with his usual intrepidity, and gained a complete victory. The province of Arcot being thus cleared of the enemy, Clive with his forces returned to Fort St David's, where he found Major Lawrence just arrived from England, to take upon him the command of the troops in the company's service. After having performed a number of important services, Captain Clive's health being in an enfeebled state, he returned to England, where he was received by the East India company with great distinction. As a testimony of their sense of his military merit, they requested him to accept of a diamond-hilted sword. This, however, he declined, unless the same present should be made to Colonel Lawrence, which was accordingly done.

Soon after Clive's arrival in England, he was solicited, by the directors of the East India company, to accept the appointment of governor of Fort St David's, with a right of succession to the government of Madras; and, as he expressed his willingness to serve them, they procured for him the commission of Lieutenant-colonel in the royal service, together with the command of three companies of the royal artillery, and some hundreds of the king's troops. With this force he was ordered to join the Mahrattas on the coast of Hindostan, and, in conjunction with them, to attack the French, whose power was at that time ex-

tremely formidable to the English East India company. But finding, on his arrival at Bombay, that an end had been put to hostilities between the English and French in India, he formed a scheme of employing the English forces, in conjunction with the Mahrattas, against Angrias, a very formidable neighbouring pirate, whose frequent depredations were injurious to the English settlements. The plan was crowned with success, under the co-operation of Admirals Watson and Pocock.

After this transaction, Colonel Clive sailed for Fort St David's, where he arrived in April, 1756. His stay here was short; for Calcutta being taken by the nabob of Bengal, he was summoned to Madras, where he was appointed to the command of the troops sent from thence to the relief of the English in Bengal. He embarked on board Admiral Watson's squadron, and, with the assistance of the squadron, made himself master of Bulbudgia, a place of great strength, though very ill defended. On the 1st of January the admiral, with two ships, appeared before Calcutta, and was received by a brisk fire from the batteries. The salute was returned so warmly, that the enemy's guns were soon silenced, and in less than two hours the place and fort were abandoned. Colonel Clive, on the other side, invested the town, and made his attack with a vigour and intrepidity which overcame every obstacle. A few days after, Hughley, situated higher up the river, was reduced with little difficulty. Incensed at the almost instantaneous loss of all his conquests, and the demolition of the city of Hughley, the surajah or viceroy of Bengal discouraged all advances to an accommodation which was proposed by the admiral and chiefs of the company, and assembled an army of 20,000 horse, and 15,000 foot, fully resolved to expel the English out of his dominions, and take ample vengeance for the disgraces he had lately sustained. He was seen marching by the English camp in his way to Calcutta on the 2d of February, where he encamped about a mile from the town. Colonel Clive immediately made application to the admiral for a reinforcement, and 600 men, under the command of Captain Warwick, were accordingly drafted from the different ships, and sent to assist his little army. Clive drew out his forces, advanced in three columns towards the enemy, and began the attack so vigorously, that the surajah retreated, after a feeble resistance, with the loss of a thousand men killed, wounded, and taken prisoners, five hundred horses, and four elephants. Though this advantage was less decisive than could have been wished, yet it sufficiently intimidated the surajah into concessions, much to the honour and advantage of the company. He promised not to disturb the English in any of their privileges or possessions as granted by the mogul; and engaged that all merchandise belonging to the company should pass and repass in every part of the province of Bengal, free of duty; that all the English factories seized the preceding year or since, should be restored, with the money, goods, and effects appertaining; that all damages sustained by the English should be repaired, and their losses repaid; that the English should have liberty to fortify Calcutta in whatever manner they thought proper, without interruption; that they should have the liberty of coining all the gold and bullion they imported, which should pass current in the province; that he would remain in strict friendship and alliance with the English, use his utmost endeavours to heal up

the late divisions, and restore the former good understanding between them.

The admiral and Clive now resolved to attack the French settlements in Bengal. Their chief object was the reduction of Chandernagore, situated higher up the river than Calcutta. Colonel Clive began his march to Chandernagore, at the head of 700 Europeans and 1600 Indians. On his first arrival he took possession of all the outposts, except one redoubt mounted with eight pieces of cannon, which he left to be silenced by the admiral. On the 18th of March, Admirals Watson and Pocock arrived within two miles of the French settlement, with the *Kent*, *Tiger*, and *Salisbury* men-of-war, and found their passage obstructed by booms laid across the river, and several vessels sunk in the channel. These difficulties being removed, they advanced and drew up in a line before the fort, which they battered with great fury for three hours, while Colonel Clive was making his approaches on the land-side, and playing vigorously from the batteries he had raised. Their united efforts soon obliged the enemy to submission. A flag of truce was waved over the walls, and the place surrendered by capitulation. The keys were delivered to Captain Latham of the *Tiger*; and in the afternoon Colonel Clive, with the king's troops, took possession.

Success had hitherto attended all the operations of the British commanders. But however specious the nabob's promises were, they found him extremely dilatory in the execution of several articles of the treaty. The company's goods were still loaded with high duties, and several other infractions of the peace committed, upon such pretences as evidently demonstrated that he sought to come to an open rupture as soon as his projects were ripe for execution. Mr Watts, from time to time, sent intelligence of every transaction in the surajah's cabinet; and although that prince publicly declared he would cause him to be impaled as soon as the English troops should be put in motion within the kingdom of Bengal, he bravely sacrificed his own safety to the interest of the company, and exhorted them to proceed with vigour in their military operations. During these deliberations, an incident occurred that soon determined the council to come to an open rupture. The leading persons in the viceroy's court found themselves oppressed by his haughtiness and insolence. The same spirit of discontent appeared among the principal officers of his army; they were well-acquainted with his perfidy,—saw his preparations for war,—and were sensible that the peace of the country could never be restored, unless either the English were expelled, or the nabob deposed. In consequence, a plan was concerted for divesting him of all his power; and the conspiracy was conducted by Meer Jaffier, his prime minister,—a nobleman of great influence and authority in the province. The project was communicated to Mr Watts, and so improved by the address of that gentleman as to insure success. A treaty was actually concluded between Meer Jaffier Ali Khan, and the English company; and a plan concerted with this nobleman and the other malcontents for their defection from the viceroy.<sup>1</sup> These previous measures being taken, Colonel

<sup>1</sup> A Gentoo merchant, named Omichund, was employed to conduct the correspondence. His recompense had already been stipulated; but when the negotiation was so far advanced, that Watts, the British resident, as well as Meer Jaffier, were completely compromised and in his power, the rapacious traitor insisted on an enormous additional



Clive took the field with his little army. Admiral Watson undertook the defence of Chandernagore; and Mr Watts, deceiving the surajah's spies, by whom he was surrounded, withdrew himself from Muxadavad, and reached the English camp in safety. Clive crossed the river, and marched to Plassey, where he encamped. On the 23d of June, 1757, at day-break, the surajah advanced to attack him at the head of 15,000 horse, and nearly 30,000 infantry, with about 40 pieces of heavy cannon, conducted and managed by French gunners. They began to cannonade the English camp about six in the morning; but a severe shower falling at noon, they withdrew their artillery, and Colonel Clive seized this opportunity to take possession of a tank and two other posts of consequence, which they in vain endeavoured to retake. He then stormed an angle of their camp, covered with a double breastwork, together with an eminence which they occupied. At the beginning of this attack some of their chiefs were slain, and the men were so dispirited that they soon gave way; but Meer Jaffier, who commanded the left wing, still forbore declaring himself openly. After a short contest, the enemy were put to flight, the nabob's camp, baggage, and fifty pieces of cannon, taken, and a most complete victory obtained. The colonel, pursuing his advantage, marched to Muxadavad, the capital of the province, and was there joined by Ali Khan and the malcontents. It was before concerted that this nobleman should be invested with the dignity of nabob; accordingly, the colonel proceeded solemnly to depose Surajah Dowlah, and, with the same ceremony, to substitute Ali Khan in his room, who was publicly acknowledged by the people, viceroy of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa. Soon after the late viceroy was taken, and put to death by his successor, who readily complied with all the conditions of his elevation. He conferred on his allies very liberal rewards, and granted the company such extraordinary privileges as fully demonstrated how justly he merited their assistance. By this alliance, and the reduction of Chandernagore, the French were entirely excluded the commerce of Bengal and its dependencies; the trade of the English company was restored, and increased beyond their most sanguine hopes; a new ally was acquired, whose interest obliged him to remain firm to his engagements; a vast sum was paid to the company and the sufferers at Calcutta, to indemnify them for their losses; the soldiers and seamen were gratified with £600,000, as a reward for the courage and intrepidity they exerted; and a variety of other advantages gained which we cannot here enumerate. In a word, in the space of fourteen days, a great revolution was effected, and the government of a vast country, superior to most European kingdoms,

sum being effectually secured to him. He, however, had to deal with a man, who, in such a transaction, felt no scruple at defeating villany by fraud. Clive caused two treaties to be drawn up between Meer Jaffier and the English agents, in one of which the exorbitant demand of Omichund was guaranteed, while, in the other, it was totally omitted. The former only was shown to Omichund, who duly performed the part that was allotted to him in this iniquitous scheme. But the transaction being discountenanced by Admiral Watson, his signature to the fictitious treaty was, it is said, forged. On the success of the plot, the merchant Omichund applied for his expected reward, but was informed that he had nothing to receive, the treaty which he had seen having been framed expressly to cheat him. This information drove him mad, and he continued in a state of idiotcy up to the day of his death, which took place about eighteen months afterwards.

transferred by a handful of troops, conducted by an officer untutored in the art of war, and a general rather by intuition than instruction and experience. How far the conduct of Clive, with respect to his encouragement of Meer Jaffier's treachery, and the subsequent deposition and death of the nabob, was justifiable, we shall not take upon us to determine. It is certain that the immense acquisition of territory, which was made by the English East India company, was chiefly owing to the courage and the conduct of Clive. It has been observed, "that whoever contemplates the forlorn situation of the company, when Clive first arrived at Calcutta in the year 1756, and then considers the degree of opulence and power they possessed when he finally left that place, will be convinced that the history of the world has seldom afforded an instance of so rapid and improbable a change. At the first period they were merely an association of merchants struggling for existence. One of their factories was in ruins; their agents were murdered, and an army of 50,000 men, to which they had nothing to oppose, threatened the immediate destruction of their principal settlement. At the last period, distant from the first but ten years, they were become powerful princes possessed of vast revenues, and ruling over fifteen millions of people."

It appears that Meer Jaffier, after the former nabob had been deposed, made Clive a present of £210,000. He also prevailed on the mogul, who at that time was a prisoner of state in Delhi, but who was still considered as the fountain of honours, to confer on Clive the dignity of Omrah, or noble of the empire, and also bestowed on him for the support of his title, a grant of an ample revenue. This revenue, which amounted to £28,000 per annum, consisted of the quit-rents paid by the company for the lands they held in the neighbourhood of Calcutta. Colonel Clive returned to England in 1760, where his conduct and exploits received the warmest commendations from the East India company; and the following year the king conferred on him the title of Baron in the kingdom of Ireland, by the title of Lord Clive, Baron Plassey, in the county of Clare.

Some time after the return of Clive to England, the English deposed the nabob, Meer Jaffier, and transferred the government to his son-in-law, Cossim Ali Khan. But the new nabob making some opposition to the various kinds of injustice and oppression practised by the servants of the English East India company, they deposed Cossim Ali Khan, and reinstated Meer Jaffier in the nabobship. The misconduct of the company's servants at length occasioned such disorders and confusions, and such hostilities in India, that Lord Clive and four of his friends were commissioned by the East India directors, to go to India to adjust all disputes with the country powers, and to reform the many abuses which prevailed among the company's servants, both in the military and civil departments. Lord Clive and his fellow-commissioners arrived at Calcutta in May, 1765. They made a treaty with the native princes of India, and established some regulations beneficial to the East India company; but the natives of the country still suffered great injustice and oppression from the servants of the company.

Lord Clive returned to England in July, 1767, and was made a knight of the Bath in 1769. It should also be observed, that he represented the borough of Shrewsbury in parliament, from the year 1760

to the time of his decease. On the 21st of February, 1773, a motion was made in the house of commons, and supported by the minister,—“That in the acquisition of his wealth, Lord Clive had abused the powers with which he was intrusted.” With the assistance of Wedderburne, he defended himself, if not satisfactorily, at least with great ability. His defence concluded in the following terms:—“If the resolution proposed shall receive the assent of the house, I shall have nothing left that I can call my own, except my paternal income of £500 a year, which has been in the family for ages past. But upon this I am content to live; and perhaps I shall find more real content of mind and happiness than in the trembling affluence of an unsettled fortune. But to be called, after sixteen years have elapsed, to account for my conduct in this manner,—and after an uninterrupted enjoyment of my property, to be questioned and considered as obtaining it unwarrantably,—is hard indeed, and a treatment of which I should not think the British senate capable. Yet if this should be the case, I have a conscious innocence within me, that tells me my conduct is irreproachable. ‘*Frangas, non flectes*’—they may take from me what I have; they may, as they think, make me poor; but I will be happy. Before I sit down, I have one request to make to the house; that when they come to decide upon my honour, they will not forget their own.” The house rejected the motion against him, and resolved that “Lord Clive had rendered great and meritorious services to his country.”

Lord Clive was a striking instance of the inefficacy of honours and wealth to confer happiness. After his return to England, though in possession of a splendid fortune and of accumulated honours, he often discovered great uneasiness of mind, and could not endure to be alone. His friends represented this as the result of a depression of spirits occasioned by a nervous fever; but by others it was attributed to causes of a very different kind. He put an end to his own life on the 22d of November, 1774, when he was not quite fifty years of age. Clive was unquestionably a man of great genius: his military skill was displayed to great advantage in all his campaigns, and he had that happy talent of inspiring confidence in those who acted under him, which is of such value to a general. In parliament he seldom spoke; but when he did he was always listened to with respect. His eldest son, Edward, having married the heir-general of the then lately extinct earl of Powis, was, in 1804, elevated to that dignity.

## Pitt, Earl of Chatham.

BORN A. D. 1708.—DIED A. D. 1778.

THIS celebrated statesman was born in November, 1708. His grandfather was that governor of Madras who acquired by means unknown the celebrated diamond which the regent, Orleans, bought for three millions of livres, and which still exists among the crown jewels of France. His father, Robert Pitt of Boconnock in Cornwall, was at one time representative for Old Sarum, and at another for Oakhampton.

William Pitt was educated at Eton and Trinity college, Oxford. His biographer, Mr Thackeray, has preserved some Latin verses which

the young collegian composed, according to academic custom, on the death of George I. They are by no means of first-rate quality, and contain some false quantities. He matriculated in January, 1726; but left the university without taking a degree, having found it necessary to travel for his health before his studies were completed. He made the tour of France and Italy, during which, says Chesterfield, he acquired "a great fund of premature and useful knowledge." On the death of his father, being a younger son, it was necessary that he should choose a profession; he decided for the army, and obtained a cornet's commission in the Blues.

In 1734 his elder brother caused him to be returned for Old Sarum. He attached himself to the prince of Wales's party; and addressed the house for the first time in support of Pulteney's motion for an address to the king on occasion of the prince's marriage to the princess of Saxe-Gotha, in April, 1736. His debut was very successful, and placed him at once amongst the rising men in the house; and he soon became so annoying to Walpole, that he deprived him of the commission which he held in the army. The prince, however, made him his groom of the bed-chamber, and he continued to oppose ministers with increasing vigour and ability. Horatio Walpole happening to throw out a taunting remark in the house on the youth and inexperience of the new ally of the opposition, Pitt rose and overwhelmed his antagonist with his indignant eloquence: "I will not attempt," he said, "to determine whether youth can justly be imputed to any man as a reproach; but I will affirm, that the wretch who, after having seen the consequences of repeated errors, continues still to blunder, and whose age has only added obstinacy to stupidity, is surely the object of either abhorrence or contempt, and deserves not that his grey head should secure him from insults. Much more is he to be abhorred, who, as he has advanced in age, has seceded from virtue, and becomes more wicked with less temptation; who prostitutes himself for money which he cannot enjoy, and spends the remains of his life in the ruin of his country."

When the unfavourable result of the elections of 1741, compelled Walpole to resign, and the duke of Newcastle attempted to form an administration on a whig basis, the 'boy patriots'—as Walpole used to call them—namely, the Grenvilles, Lyttleton, and Pitt, secretly offered, through Colonel Selwyn, to use their influence to secure the minister from prosecution. Walpole coolly declined the proposal;<sup>1</sup> and an arrangement was ultimately effected in which the 'boys' were overlooked altogether. Pitt was now the fiercest and most implacable of Walpole's enemies; night after night he launched forth invectives against the man with whom he had so lately proposed to treat, and called upon the house to appoint a secret committee for investigating the conduct of the late first lord of the treasury. We have elsewhere related the result of this measure; but we find ourselves unable to offer any apology here for the subject of this article. His conduct was in this instance inconceivably base, and forms a deep stain on his character. Walpole and Pulteney having both been removed from the lower house, Carteret became the next object of attack to Pitt. He assailed him chiefly on the subject of the king's attachment to his Hanoverian dominions, and

<sup>1</sup> Lord John Russell.

the practice of paying Hanoverian troops with English money. Nothing could be more offensive than this to the king, who conceived an antipathy to the young oppositionist which he never wholly shook off.

In 1744 Pitt received a legacy of £10,000, on the death of the old duchess of Marlborough, who declared in her will, that she left him this sum in consideration of "the noble defence he had made for the support of the laws of England, and to prevent the ruin of his country."

On the dismissal of Lord Grenville, and the formation of the 'Broad-bottom' administration, Pitt was conciliated, or at least kept quiet, by the promise of a post as soon as the king's dislike to him could be overcome. The Pelhams knew their man, that he was not to be trifled with; and kept their word. In 1746, Pitt was appointed vice-treasurer of Ireland, and in a few months after, paymaster of the forces. The latter was an exceedingly lucrative situation: for the paymaster seldom had less than £100,000 in his hands, and was allowed to appropriate the interest of what funds he held to his own use. In addition to this, it had been customary for foreign princes in the pay of England to allow the paymaster of the forces a per-centage on their subsidies. Pitt nobly declined to avail himself of these advantages, and would accept of nothing beyond his legal salary. Such conduct was rare in these venal days, and was appreciated as it deserved to be by the nation. Pitt's former inconsistencies were forgotten, and he was regarded as a disinterested patriot, or, at all events, a man above any sordid form of temptation. "The possession of office," it has been affirmed by Chatham's blinded admirers, "worked no change in his public conduct." This is not true, for we now find him silently acquiescing in that very system of continental measures which he was once so loud and fierce in condemning; he ceased to rail about Hanover; and he no longer objected to the treaty with Spain.

The death of Henry Pelham, in 1754, threw the political world again into ferment. The duke of Newcastle, by his base and vacillating conduct, irritated both Fox and Pitt, and drew down upon himself the united opposition of these two leaders, who were joined by Legge, the chancellor of the exchequer, in their revolt. Fox was ultimately won over; but Pitt spurned the minister's advances, and on the meeting of parliament, in 1755, supported the amendment on the address in one of the most powerful speeches ever uttered within the walls of St Stephen's. In the course of his impetuous philippic he compared the coalition of Fox and Newcastle to the junction of the Rhone and the Saone: "At Lyons," he said, "I was taken to see the place where the two rivers meet: the one gentle, feeble, and languid, yet of no depth,—the other a boisterous and impetuous torrent; but different as they are, they meet at last." The amendment was rejected by a large majority; and Pitt, Legge, and Grenville, were immediately dismissed from office.

When the unfortunate events of the war now begun with France had compelled Newcastle to give in his resignation, the king sent for Fox, and authorized him to concoct a new administration in concert with Pitt; but the latter pointedly refused to act with his old rival. The duke of Devonshire proved a more successful negotiator with the haughty commoner, and Pitt became secretary of state, and leader in the house of commons. This administration, however, proved very short-lived. The king could not overcome his antipathy to Pitt; and within five months

Newcastle was again summoned to St James's. Pitt was sufficiently consoled for his disgrace by the numerous manifestations of his popularity which now showered upon him. The common council of London met, and the freedom of the city was voted to him; all the great corporate towns followed the example; so that "for some weeks"—to use Walpole's expression—"it rained gold boxes." A man thus supported might have wreaked his vengeance on any rival; but he satisfied himself with a more moderate and a wiser course. "He had found by experience that he could not stand alone. His eloquence and his popularity had done much,—very much for him. Without rank, without fortune, without borough-interest,—hated by the king, hated by the aristocracy,—he was a person of the first importance in the state. He had been suffered to form a ministry, and to pronounce sentence of exclusion on all his rivals,—on the most powerful nobleman of the whig party,—on the ablest debater in the house of commons. And he now found that he had gone too far. The English constitution was not indeed without a popular element; but other elements generally predominated. The confidence and admiration of the nation might make a statesman formidable at the head of an opposition,—might load him with framed and glazed parchments, and gold boxes,—might possibly, under very peculiar circumstances, such as those of the preceding year, raise him for a time to power; but constituted as parliament then was, the favourite of the people could not depend on a majority in the people's own house. The duke of Newcastle,—however contemptible in morals, manners, and understanding,—was a dangerous enemy. His rank, his wealth, his unrivalled parliamentary interest, would alone have made him important. But this was not all. The whig aristocracy regarded him as their leader. His long possession of power had given him a kind of prescriptive right to possess it still. The house of commons had been elected when he was at the head of affairs; the members for the ministerial boroughs had all been nominated by him; the public offices swarmed with his creatures. Pitt desired power; and he desired it, we really believe, from high and generous motives. He was, in the strict sense of the word, a patriot. He had no general liberality; none of that philanthropy which the great French writers of his time preached to all the nations of Europe. He loved England as an Athenian loved the city of the violet crown,—as a Roman loved the 'maxima rerum Roma.' He saw the country insulted and defeated. He saw the national spirit sinking. Yet he knew what the resources of the empire vigorously employed could effect; and he felt that he was the man to employ them vigorously. 'My lord,' he said to the duke of Devonshire, 'I am sure that I can save this country, and that nobody else can.' Desiring then to be in power, and feeling that his abilities and the public confidence were not alone sufficient to keep him in power against the wishes of the court and the aristocracy, he began to think of a coalition with Newcastle."<sup>3</sup> The duke was equally disposed to a reconciliation, for he felt that Pitt's alliance could alone preserve him in office, and that such a union would be really irresistible. The king, who was desirous that the coalition should be between Fox and Newcastle, was enraged when he heard that the duke had

<sup>3</sup> Edinburgh Review, vol. lviii. p. 535.

preferred to treat with Pitt; but he felt himself compelled to yield to the necessity of the case. The seals of the exchequer had now been in the hands of the lord-chief-justice of the king's bench for the last two months; and the affairs of the nation were getting into disorder at a period of more than ordinary emergency. Lord Mansfield was therefore commanded to open negotiations with Newcastle and Pitt; and in the course of a month a new and most powerful administration was organized with Pitt at its head.

The affairs of Britain now assumed a new aspect. Pitt's energy and determination wrought miracles in the government offices. To those who told him that his orders could not be executed within the time specified, he would peremptorily reply, "It must be done," and the mandate was obeyed. He once asked an officer who had been intrusted with the command of an important expedition how many men he should require: "Ten thousand," was the reply. "You shall have twelve," said the minister; "and then it will be your own fault if you do not succeed." The zeal of the minister was everywhere crowned with success. In July, 1758, Louisburg fell; Goree, Guadaloupe, Ticonderago, Niagara, Quebec, successively yielded to British prowess; Boscawen defeated the French fleet off Lagos; Hawke vanquished the Brest fleet under Conflans; Chandernagore yielded to Clive, Pondicherry to Coote; the allied arms triumphed at Minden; and the combined powers of France, Russia, and Austria, failed before the energy of Pitt.

On the death of George II., the fatal influence of Lord Bute over the new monarch soon threw a new aspect over the face of affairs. France had already made overtures of peace; nor was the minister of Britain disinclined to listen to them; but he felt aggrieved by the attempt of Spain to interfere in the negotiation, and having received information from Madrid which excited his suspicions of that government, he proposed an immediate attack upon Spain by intercepting the Plate fleet. The reception which his proposition met with convinced him that he was no longer minister; in fact, the administration had been already considerably modified. Disdaining to be nominally at the head of a cabinet which he could not direct, and responsible for measures which he could not guide, he resigned his offices in October, 1761, and accepted a pension of £3000 a year for the lives of himself, his son, and his wife, who was created baroness of Chatham. He had written to a female relation, some years before, severely reproaching her for the "despicable meanness" of which she had been guilty, in having accepted an annuity out of the public purse; the lady, on the present occasion, it is said, took her revenge, by sending him a copy of his own letter.

On the 25th of November, 1762, the articles of the peace of Paris were laid before the house by Fox, now the leader of the house of commons. Pitt opposed the motion for their approval with great energy and eloquence; but ministers triumphed by a majority of 319 to 65. In 1764, he greatly distinguished himself in the affair of Wilkes, by his opposition to general warrants.

The death of the earl of Egremont was a severe shock to the administration of Mr Grenville, and led to a renewal of negotiations with Pitt. The king sent for him twice, but found him impracticable. In

1766, when Lord Rockingham's administration came to an end, Lord Northington advised to send for Pitt, and to allow him his own conditions. This was acceded to; and Pitt was allowed to form his own cabinet. The several appointments were announced in the Gazette of the 2d of August. Mr Pitt, created Earl of Chatham, took to himself the duke of Newcastle's office of lord-privy-seal. Lord Camden was made chancellor in room of the earl of Northington, who was transferred to the presidency of the council. The earl of Shelburne was appointed one of the secretaries of state, Mr Conway continuing in office as the other. The place of first lord of the treasury was bestowed upon the duke of Grafton; and the honourable Charles Townshend became chancellor of the exchequer and ministerial leader in the house of commons. Sir Charles Saunders succeeded Lord Egmont at the head of the admiralty; and the earl of Hillsborough, Lord Dartmouth, as first lord of trade. Several changes were also made in the subordinate places of the treasury and admiralty boards. Viscount Barrington was continued as secretary at war; and Lord North and Mr George Cooke were associated in the office of paymaster-general, formerly held by Charles Townshend. The solicitor-general, Mr William de Grey, became attorney-general in the room of the honourable Charles Yorke, and the appointment of solicitor-general was given to Mr Edward Willes. The marquess of Granby was placed at the head of the army.

The view taken by the public of these arrangements may be gathered from a letter of Lord Chesterfield's. "The curtain," says his lordship, writing on the 1st of August, "was at last drawn up, the day before yesterday, and discovered the new actors, together with some of the old ones. I do not name them to you, because to-morrow's Gazette will do it full as well as I could. Mr Pitt, who had a *carte blanche* given him, named every one of them; but what would you think he named himself for? lord-privy-seal, and (what will astonish you, as it does every mortal here) Earl of Chatham. The joke here is that he has had a fall upstairs, and has done himself so much hurt that he will never be able to stand upon his legs again. Every body is puzzled how to account for this step; though it would not be the first time that great abilities have been duped by low cunning. But be it what it will, he is now certainly only Earl of Chatham, and no longer Mr Pitt in any respect whatever. Such an event, I believe, was never read nor heard of. To withdraw in the fulness of his power, and in the utmost gratification of his ambition, from the house of commons, which procured him his power, and which could alone insure it to him, and to go into that hospital of incurables, the house of lords, is a measure so unaccountable, that nothing but proof positive could have made me to believe it; but true it is. Lord Shelburne is your secretary of state; Charles Townshend has now the sole management of the house of commons; but how long he will be content to be only Lord Chatham's vicegerent there, is a question which I will not pretend to decide. There is one very bad sign for Lord Chatham in his new dignity, which is, that all his enemies, without exception, rejoice at it; and all his friends are stupified and dumb-founded. If I mistake not much, he will, in the course of a year, enjoy perfect *otium cum dignitate*.' On the 14th of the same month, we find his lordship expressing himself again in the same strain:—"It is certain that Mr Pitt has by his dignity of earl lost



the greatest part of his popularity, especially in the city ; and I believe the opposition will be very strong, and perhaps prevail next session in the house of commons ; there being now nobody there who can have the authority and ascendant over them that Pitt had."

The earl of Chatham held office until the end of 1768, when, on the appointment of Lord Hillsborough as colonial secretary, he sent the privy seal to the king by the hands of Lord Camden. This measure was indeed forced upon him by the determination which the king evinced to carry matters to an extremity with the Americans. He appeared little in parliament after this, except in support of Wilkes, until 1774, when the crisis of American affairs drew forth his lordship's energies, and seemed to revive all his youthful eloquence. He implored the ministry to pause and alter its policy with respect to America, but he spoke to deaf men ; he brought in a bill for quieting the troubles in America,—it was instantly rejected ; he moved an address to the king to put a stop to hostilities,—their lordships sneered at his apprehensions as visionary and groundless. Yet when, on the 7th of April, 1778, the duke of Richmond moved an address to the crown in which the necessity of acknowledging the independence of America was asserted, Chatham rose from a sick-bed, hastened to the house, and opposed the motion in a speech of great splendour. "My lords," he said, "I lament that my infirmities have so long prevented my attendance here, at so awful a crisis. I have made an effort almost beyond my strength, to come down to the house on this day, (and, perhaps, it will be the last time I shall ever be able to enter its walls,) to express my indignation at an idea that has gone forth of yielding up America. My lords,—I rejoice that the grave has not yet closed upon me,—that I am still alive to lift up my voice against the dismemberment of this ancient and most noble monarchy. Pressed down as I am by the hand of infirmity, I am little able to assist my country in this most perilous conjuncture ; but, my lords, while I have sense and memory, I will never consent to deprive the royal offspring of the house of Brunswick of their fairest inheritance. Where is the man that will dare to advise such a measure ? My lords, his majesty succeeded to an empire great in extent, as it was unsullied in reputation :—shall we tarnish the lustre of this nation by an ignominious surrender of its rights and best possessions ? Shall this great kingdom, which has survived, whole and entire, the Danish depredations, the Scottish inroads, and the Norman conquest,—that has stood the threatened invasion of the Spanish armada, now fall prostrate before the house of Bourbon ? Surely, my lords, this nation is no longer what it was ! Shall a people, that, seventeen years ago, was the terror of the world, now stoop so low as to tell its ancient, inveterate enemy, 'take all we have, only give us peace ?' It is impossible ! I wage war with no man, or set of men,—I wish for none of their employments,—nor would I co-operate with those who still persist in unretracted error ; or who, instead of acting on a firm, decisive line of conduct, halt between two opinions, where there is no middle path. In God's name : if it be absolutely necessary to declare either for peace or war, and the former cannot be preserved with honour, why is not the latter commenced without hesitation ? I am not, I confess, well-informed of the resources of this kingdom, but I trust it has still sufficient to maintain its just rights, though I know them not. But,

my lords, any state is better than despair. Let us at least make one effort ; and, if we must fall, let us fall like men !”

The duke of Richmond having replied to this speech, Lord Chatham attempted to rise again, but fainted, and fell into the arms of those who were near him. The house was instantly cleared, and medical assistance procured. He was conveyed to his seat at Hayes, where he expired on the 11th of May, 1778, in the seventieth year of his age.

In figure, Lord Chatham was dignified and commanding. “There was a grandeur in his personal appearance,” says a writer, who speaks of him when in his decline, “which produced awe and mute attention ; and though bowed by infirmity and age, his mind shone through the ruins of his body, armed his eye with lightning, and clothed his lip with thunder.”—“He was born an orator,” says Wilkes, “and from nature possessed every outward requisite to bespeak respect, and even awe: a manly figure, with the eagle eye of the great Condé, fixed your attention, and almost commanded reverence the moment he appeared ; and the keen lightning of his eye spoke the high respect of his soul before his lips had pronounced a syllable. There was a kind of fascination in his look when he eyed any one askance. Nothing could withstand the force of that contagion. The fluent Murray has faltered, and even Fox shrunk back appalled from an adversary ‘fraught with fire unquenchable,’ if I may borrow an expression of our great Milton. He had not the correctness of language so striking in the great Roman orator, but he had the *verba ardentia*,—the bold, glowing words.”

## Captain Cook.

BORN A. D. 1728.—DIED A. D. 1779.



JAMES COOK, the celebrated navigator, was the son of James Cook, a native of the county of Northumberland. His father's station was no higher than that of a farm-servant, and he was married to a woman in his own sphere of life. Young Cook was born on the 27th of October, 1728, at Morton in Cleveland, Yorkshire. He received the first rudiments of education from the school-mistress of his native village ; afterwards, on his father's removal to Great Ayton, he was put to a day-school, at the expense of Mr Skottowe, his father's employer, where he was instructed in writing and the first rules of arithmetic. About the age of thirteen he was apprenticed to a haberdasher at Snaiths, about ten miles from Whitby ; but upon some disagreement taking place between him and his master, he indulged his own inclination in binding himself an apprentice to Messrs Walker of Whitby, who had several vessels in the coal-trade. After serving a few years in the situation of a common sailor, he was made mate of one of Mr Walker's ships.

Early in the year 1755, when hostilities broke out between France and England, Cook entered on board the *Eagle*, of sixty guns, to which vessel Sir Hugh Palliser was appointed. He now distinguished himself as an active and useful seaman, and his promotion was forwarded by a letter of recommendation from Mr Osbaldeston, member for Scarborough. On the 15th of May, 1759, he was appointed master of the *Mercury*, which soon after sailed to America, and joined the fleet un-

der Sir Charles Saunders at the siege of Quebec. On this occasion he was recommended by Captain Palliser to the difficult and dangerous service of taking the soundings of the St Lawrence, between the island of Orleans and the north shore, previous to military operations against Quebec. This task he performed in a masterly manner; and soon afterwards was employed to survey the river below Quebec. After this, he was appointed master of the *Northumberland*, stationed at Halifax. At this period of his life it was that he first read Euclid and studied astronomy and some other branches of science. In the year 1762 he was with the *Northumberland* at the recapture of Newfoundland. In the latter end of the same year he returned to England, and married.

Early in 1763, when Admiral (then Captain) Greaves was appointed governor of Newfoundland, Cook went out with him to survey the coasts of that island. In 1765 he was with Sir William Burnaby on the Jamaica station; and that officer having occasion to send despatches to the governor of Yucatan, selected Cook for that mission, which he executed in a highly satisfactory manner. A relation of the voyage and journey which he undertook on this occasion was published in 1769, under the title of '*Remarks on a passage from the river Balise, in the bay of Honduras, to Merida, the capital of the province of Yucatan.*' His first astronomical paper was printed in the 57th volume of the *Philosophical transactions*. It is entitled '*An observation of an Eclipse of the Sun at the island of Newfoundland, August 5th, 1766, with the longitude of the place of observation deduced from it.*' Cook's observations were made at one of the Burgeo islands near Cape Ray. It obtained for him the character of an able astronomer.

The spirit for geographical discovery, which had gradually declined since the beginning of the 17th century, was now beginning to revive. Two voyages of this kind had been performed in the reign of George II., the one under Captain Middleton, the other by Captains Moore and Smyth, both with a view to discover a north-west passage through Hudson's bay to the East Indies. Two others, under Captains Byron, Wallis, and Carteret, had been undertaken soon after the conclusion of the peace in 1763, by order of George III., and before the return of these navigators, another voyage was resolved upon for astronomical purposes. It having been calculated that a transit of Venus over the sun's disk would happen in 1769, a memorial to his majesty was presented by the Royal society, setting forth the great importance of making proper observations on that phenomenon, and praying that a vessel might be fitted out, at the expense of government, for conveying proper persons to one of the Friendly islands, in order to make the necessary observations. This request being complied with, Dalrymple, an eminent member of the Royal society, was appointed to the command of the expedition. But in the execution of the project, an unexpected difficulty occurred. Mr Dalrymple, sensible of the impossibility of guiding a vessel through unknown and dangerous seas without any proper command over the crew, demanded a brevet commission as captain of the vessel.<sup>1</sup> This commission, however, Sir Edward Hawke absolutely refused to sign, declaring, when pressed upon the subject, that he would

<sup>1</sup> Such as had formerly been granted to Dr Halley, in a voyage of discovery made by him.

rather suffer his right hand to be cut off than intrust any of his majesty's ships to the command of a person who had not been properly bred to the service. In this dilemma, Cook was proposed by Mr Stephens; and his recommendation being seconded by Sir Hugh Palliser, he was immediately appointed to the command of the vessel, with the rank of lieutenant in his majesty's service.

Mr Cook's commission was dated, May 25th, 1768, and a vessel of 370 tons, named the *Endeavour*, was provided for him. While the necessary preparations were making for the voyage, Captain Wallis returned. It having been recommended to this gentleman to fix upon a proper place for making the intended astronomical observations, he had chosen the island, named by him George's island, but since known by the name of Otaheite, for that purpose. This selection was approved of, and directions were accordingly given to Mr Cook, with whom Mr Charles Green was joined in the astronomical part. The expedition was likewise accompanied by Mr Banks, afterwards Sir Joseph Banks, Dr Solander, and several other men of science.

On the 30th of July, 1768, Cook set sail. During the voyage he approved himself an able seaman, and a judicious commander. On erecting their observatory, an accident happened which nearly disconcerted the whole scheme. This was the loss of their quadrant, which had been stolen by some of the natives; but, through the exertions of Mr Banks, it was at last recovered, and the observations proceeded with. After a stay of three months, when preparing to take leave, a disagreeable and trying circumstance occurred,—the desertion of two of the seamen, who, having married young women of the country, determined to take up their residence in it. Cook was now obliged to seize some of the chiefs, and to inform them that they could not obtain their liberty unless the deserters were recovered. This resolute conduct had the desired effect; the deserters were given up, and Cook set sail, along with Tupia, who had formerly been the prime minister to Otera, a princess of the island, and a boy of thirteen years of age, both of whom were desirous of accompanying him to England.

While Cook proceeded to visit some other islands, Tupia occasionally acted as interpreter. On his arrival in New Zealand, Cook found the people extremely hostile and insolent. At their first meeting, one of the natives having threatened to dart his lance into the boat, was shot dead. Another, having carried off a hanger, was fired at with small shot, and upon his still refusing to restore it, was fired at with ball and killed. This, however, produced very little effect on the rest, till several muskets were fired with small shot, which wounded three or four more. Next day the commander, having determined to force some of the natives on board, in order to conciliate their affections by kind treatment, directed his men to follow two canoes which he perceived under weigh before him. One escaped; but the other, not observing the boats in pursuit, was overtaken, on which the savages plied their oars so briskly that the ship's boats were not able to keep up with them. Tupia, whose language the New Zealanders understood, called to them to turn, with assurances that no harm would be done them; but they refused their flight. A musket was then fired over their heads with a view to intimidate them, but upon this they prepared to fight, and on the next day the attack began with so much vigour, that the

lieutenant's people were obliged to fire upon them with ball, by which four out of seven that were in the boat were killed; the other three jumped into the water, and were taken on board. This part of Cook's conduct was highly inconsistent with that humanity for which he was in general so eminently distinguished. Aware of the censure it merited, he has offered the following apology for the transaction:—"These people certainly did not deserve death for not choosing to confide in my promises, or not consenting to come on board my boat, even if they had apprehended no danger; but the nature of my service required me to obtain a knowledge of their country, which I could no otherwise obtain but by forcing myself into it in an hostile manner, or gaining admission through the confidence and good will of the people. I had already tried the power of presents without effect, and I was now prompted by my desire to avoid farther hostilities, to attempt to get some of them on board,—the only method we had left of convincing them that we intended them no harm, and had it in our power to contribute to their gratification and convenience. Thus far my intentions certainly were not criminal; and though in the contest—which I had not the least reason to expect—our victory might have been complete without so great an expense of life; yet in such situations, when the command to fire has once been given, no man can pretend to restrain its excess, or prescribe its effect."

Having spent six months in circumnavigating and exploring the islands of New Zealand, Cook sailed from thence on the 31st of March, 1770. From New Zealand he proceeded to New Holland, and on the 28th of April came in sight of Botany bay. Here all their endeavours to induce the natives to have any intercourse with them proved ineffectual, though happily there was no blood spilled in any quarrel.

During their navigation round New Holland, the coasts of which are full of dangerous rocks and shoals, our navigators were brought into many perilous situations. But from the time they quitted the coast of New Holland, till they arrived at Batavia, they encountered no other perils than such as are common in sea-voyages. They were obliged, however, to stay for some time at the latter place to repair their damages. Here poor Tupia, with his boy Tayeto, fell sacrifices to the unhealthiness of the climate, as well as the surgeon, three seamen, and a servant. After leaving Batavia, the seeds of disease again broke out amongst them in the most violent and fatal manner, insomuch that in the course of about six weeks, they lost one of Mr Banks' assistants, Mr Sporing, Mr Parkinson, his natural history painter, Mr Green the astronomer, the boatswain, carpenter, and mate, Mr Monkhouse, midshipman, the corporal of the marines, two of the carpenter's crew, and nine seamen. After touching at St Helena, they continued their voyage for England, where they arrived on the 11th of June, 1771. On the 29th of August the same year, his majesty testified his approbation of Mr Cook's conduct by appointing him a captain in the navy. On this occasion Cook wished to have been advanced to the rank of post-captain, which, though not more profitable than the other, is more honourable; but this being inconsistent with the rules of preferment in the navy, the earl of Sandwich, at that time at the head of the admiralty, could not agree to it.

Captain Cook was not allowed to remain long inactive. The idea of

a southern continent had been renewed by the publication of Dalrymple's 'Historical collection of voyages to the Pacific ocean.' To determine the question finally, Captain Cook was again sent out. The object of this voyage was not merely to settle the question just mentioned, but to extend the geography of the globe to its utmost limits. That the expedition might have every advantage, it was determined to employ two ships, on the choice and equipment of which the utmost attention was bestowed. The larger of the two, of 460 tons burden, was named the *Resolution*; the smaller, of 336 tons, had the name of the *Adventure*. The complement of men on board the former, of which Captain Cook was commander, was 112: of the latter, commanded by Mr Tobias Furneaux, 81. Mr Hodges, an excellent landscape painter, was engaged to make drawings and paintings; Mr John Reinhold Forster, with his son, were both engaged to explore and collect the natural history of the countries which they visited; and Mr William Wales and Mr William Bayley were engaged by the board of longitude to make celestial observations. They were furnished with the best instruments of every kind, and among the rest with four time-pieces; three constructed by Arnold, and one by Kendal, on Harrison's principles. Captain Cook's instructions were not only to sail round the globe, but to sail round it in high southern latitudes, and to make such traverses as might finally resolve the question concerning a southern continent.

In pursuance of these instructions, he set sail on the 13th of July, 1772, and on the 29th of the same month he reached the *Madeiras*. On the 6th of December, being in the latitude of 50° 40', he fell in with islands of ice, and continued among them in various latitudes till the 17th of January, 1773, when he set sail for New Zealand, which he reached on the 27th. The reception of our navigators by the New Zealanders was much more friendly than in the former voyage; there were no contests with the natives, nor the smallest apparent remembrance of former hostilities. Having spent a considerable time among the South sea islands, Cook returned to New Zealand, and thence set sail for the southern part of the continent of America. Here he explored a number of islands, and then returned to England, where he arrived in safety on the 30th of July, 1774, having been absent three years and eighteen days. In all that time he had lost only one man, who died of a disease probably begun before he had set out on the voyage. The account of this voyage was written by Captain Cook and young Forster, the naturalist; but the publication was superintended by Dr Douglas. The reception our navigator now met with was suited to his merit. He was immediately raised to the rank of post-captain, and soon after unanimously elected a member of the Royal society, from whom he received the prize of the gold medal for the best experimental paper that had appeared throughout the year.

The third voyage of this celebrated navigator was not undertaken by any express command of his majesty. Captain Cook had already done so much, that it was thought but reasonable he should be allowed to spend the remainder of his life in quiet. Still, however, there were some undetermined points in the science of geography which very much engaged the attention of the public. These were chiefly to discover the connection between Asia and America, and to determine

whether there was not a possibility of shortening the passage to the East Indies by sailing round the northern parts of the continents of Europe and Asia. It was not, as has been hinted, deemed proper to solicit Captain Cook to undergo fresh dangers by undertaking a voyage of this kind; nevertheless, as he was universally looked upon to be the fittest person in the kingdom for the purpose, all eyes were tacitly fixed upon him, and he was consulted on every thing relating to it. Captain Cook, Sir Hugh Palliser, and Mr Stephens, having been invited to the house of Lord Sandwich to dinner, besides the consideration of the proper officer for conducting the expedition, many things were said concerning the design itself, its grandeur and dignity, its consequence to navigation and science, and the completeness it would give to the whole system of discoveries. At last Cook became so much excited by the whole conversation, that he started up, and declared he would conduct it himself. This was what the parties present probably expected; his offer was instantly laid before the king, who appointed him commander of the expedition, on the 10th of February, 1776. The instructions he now received were, that he should attempt the high latitudes between the continents of Asia and America, and if possible return to England along the northern coasts of Asia and Europe. Two vessels were provided as in the former voyage, viz. the *Resolution* and the *Discovery*, the command of the former being given to Captain Cook, and of the latter to Captain Charles Clerke. In the former voyage, Captain Cook had brought along with him a native of one of the South sea islands named Omai, who resided in England during the interval between the second and third voyages, and was now happy to have an opportunity of returning to his own country. Every thing being prepared for the voyage, our navigator set sail from the Nore on the 25th of June, 1776; but did not leave Plymouth till the 12th of July. On the 1st of September they crossed the equator; and on the 18th of October anchored in Table bay, Cape of Good Hope. From the Cape, Cook set sail on the 30th of November. Having explored some desolate islands in the southern seas, he next shaped his course for New Zealand. During this part of the voyage, our navigators were involved in so thick a fog, that, according to the authors of Captain Cook's Life, "they sailed 300 leagues in the dark." The first land they reached was New Holland, where they remained till the 30th of January, 1777, when they set sail for New Zealand, and on the 12th of February anchored in Queen Charlotte's sounds. So much time was now spent in sailing up and down the Pacific ocean, that Captain Cook judged it impossible to accomplish any thing this year in the high northern latitudes; and determined to bear away for the Friendly islands, in order to supply himself with those necessaries which he had been unable to procure at any of the islands which he had just discovered. In the run thither several new islands were visited; and in prosecuting these discoveries our navigator once more narrowly escaped being shipwrecked. After a stay of between two and three months, Captain Cook took leave of the Friendly islands, and on the 12th of August, 1777, reached Otaheite, where he restored Omai to his people.

Having left the Society islands, and discovered a new group which, in honour of his patron the earl of Sandwich, Cook named the Sandwich isles, he set out on the 2d of January, 1778, on his voyage north-

ward. In this he was so far successful as to ascertain the vicinity of the continents of Asia and America, which had never been done, or but very imperfectly, before. From these desolate regions he returned to the island of Oonalashka; whence having refitted and taken in provisions, he again sailed southward, and on the 26th of November reached the Sandwich islands. Seven weeks were spent in exploring the coasts of the Owhyhee island; and during all this time they continued to maintain the most friendly intercourse with the people, who, however, appeared to be much more numerous and powerful than those of any island our navigators had yet touched at. Several of the chiefs and principal people attached themselves to Cook, and in general the people appeared to be much more honest and peaceable in their dispositions than any whom they had ever visited. But by the time they had finished their circumnavigation of the island, and cast anchor in a bay called Karakakooa, matters were greatly altered. An universal disposition to theft and plunder was now manifested, and it was evident that the common people were encouraged in this by their chiefs, who shared the booty with them. Still, however, no hostilities were commenced, and the greatest honours were paid to the commander on his going ashore. On the 4th of February, 1779, they left the island. Unluckily they encountered a storm on the 6th and 7th of the same month, during which the Resolution sprung the head of her foremast in such a manner, that they were obliged to return to Karakakooa bay to have it repaired. The former friendly intercourse was now renewed with the natives, and Captain Cook was treated with the usual honours; but on the 13th circumstances occurred which gave a new aspect to affairs. After various scuffles with the natives in the recovery of stolen property, it was found that the large cutter of the Discovery had been carried off in the night time. On this being reported, Captain Cook ordered the launch and small cutter, under the command of the second lieutenant, to lie off the east point of the bay in order to intercept all the canoes that might attempt to get out, and, if necessary, to fire upon them. The third lieutenant of the Resolution was despatched at the same time to the western part of the bay; while the master was sent in pursuit of a large double canoe already under sail, and making the best of her way out of the harbour. He soon came up with her, and by firing a few shots, obliged her to run on shore. This canoe belonged to a chief named Onai, whose person was reckoned equally sacred with that of the king, and to his not having been secured may be attributed the succeeding disaster. Captain Cook now formed the daring resolution of going in person to seize the king himself in his capital. With this view he left the ship about seven o'clock in the morning of Sunday the 14th of February, being attended by the lieutenant of marines, a sergeant, a corporal, and seven private men. The crew of the pinnace, under the command of Mr Roberts, were also armed. As they rowed towards the shore, the captain ordered the launch to leave her station at the opposite point of the bay, in order to assist his own boat. Having landed with the marines at the upper end of the town, the natives flocked round him, and prostrated themselves, as usual, before him. No sign of hostility, nor even of much alarm, yet appeared; the king's sons waited on the commander as soon as he sent for them, and by them he was introduced to the king, who readily con-



sented to go on board. But in a little time the natives began to arm themselves with long spears, clubs, and daggers, and to put on the thick mats which they used as defensive armour. These hostile demonstrations were hastened by an unlucky rumour, that one of the chiefs had been killed by the people of the *Discovery's* boats. On this the women, who had hitherto sat on the beach conversing familiarly and taking their breakfast, rose up and retired, and a confused murmur ran through the crowd. The captain now beginning to think his situation dangerous, ordered the marines to march towards the shore; he accompanied them holding the king's hand, attended by his wife, two sons, and several chiefs. The natives made a lane for them to pass; and as the distance they had to go was only about fifty or sixty yards, and the boats lay at no more than five or six yards distance from land, there was not the least apprehension of the catastrophe that ensued. The king's younger son, Keowa, went on board the pinnace without the least hesitation, and the king was about to follow, when his wife threw her arms about his neck, and, with the assistance of two chiefs, forced him to sit down. The captain might now have safely got aboard, but did not immediately relinquish the design of taking the king along with him. Finding at last, however, that this could not be accomplished without a great deal of bloodshed, he was on the point of giving orders for the people to re-embark, when one of the natives threw a stone at him. This insult was returned by the captain, who had a double barrelled piece in his hand, by a discharge of small-shot from one of the barrels. The king's son, Keowa, was still in the pinnace, but unluckily Mr Roberts set him ashore at his own request soon after the first fire. In the mean time another Indian was observed in the act of brandishing his spear at the commander; who fired in his own defence. Missing his aim, however, he killed one close by his side; upon which the sergeant received orders to fire also, which he did, and killed the offender on the spot. This disconcerted the foremost of the natives, and made them fall back in a body; but they were urged on again by those behind, and discharged a volley of stones among the marines, who immediately returned it by a general discharge of their muskets, which was instantly followed by a fire from the boats. Captain Cook expressed his astonishment at their firing, waved his hand to them to cease, and called to the people in the boats to come nearer to receive the marines. This order was obeyed by Mr Roberts; but the lieutenant who commanded the launch, instead of coming nearer, put off to a greater distance. Meanwhile, the natives, exasperated by the fire of the marines, rushed in upon them, and drove them into the water, leaving Captain Cook alone upon the rock. A fire indeed was kept up by both boats; but the one was so far off, and the other so crowded with the marines, that they could not direct their fire with proper effect. Captain Cook was then observed making for the pinnace, carrying his musket under his arm, and holding his other hand on the back part of his head to guard it from the stones. A native was seen following him, but with marks of fear, as he stopped once or twice, seemingly undetermined to proceed. At last he struck the captain on the back of the head with a club, and then precipitately retreated. Captain Cook staggered forward a few paces, and then fell on his hand and one knee, and dropped his musket. Before he could recover himself, another

native stabbed him with a dagger in the neck. He then fell into a pool of water knee-deep, where others crowded upon him; but still he struggled violently with them, got up his head, and looked towards the pinnace as if soliciting assistance. The boat was not above five or six yards' distance; but such was the confused and crowded state of the crew, that no assistance could be given him. At last a savage struck him with a club, which probably put an end to his life, as he was never seen to struggle more. The natives hauled the lifeless body up on the rocks, and used it in the most barbarous manner, snatching the daggers out of one another's hands, in order to enjoy the pleasure of mangling it.

After all, we are informed, that, in the opinion of Captain Philips who commanded the marines, it is very doubtful whether any effectual aid could have been given Captain Cook, even if no mistake had been committed on the part of the lieutenant of the launch. The author of all the mischief was Pareah, the chief already mentioned, who had employed people to steal the boat in the night-time. The king was entirely innocent both of the theft and of the murder of Captain Cook. It was found impossible to recover all the mangled remains of Captain Cook's body. By dint of threats and negotiations, however, some of the parts were procured. These being put in a coffin, and the service read over them, were committed to the deep, with the usual military honours, on the 21st of February, 1779.

Captain Cook was a man of plain address and appearance. His head was small, and he wore his hair, which was brown, tied behind. His face was full of expression;—his nose exceedingly well-shaped;—his eyes, which were small and of a brown cast, were quick and piercing, and his eye-brows prominent. His countenance altogether had an air of austerity.

### **Sir William Blackstone.**

BORN A. D. 1723.—DIED A. D. 1780.

THIS illustrious English lawyer was the fourth son of Charles Blackstone, a silkman in London. He was born on the 10th of July, 1723, after the death of his father. His uncle, Mr Thomas Bigg, an eminent surgeon, took charge of his education, and at the age of seven he was admitted on the foundation of the Charter house. At the age of fifteen he was admitted a commoner of Pembroke college, Oxford. His progress at school had been very satisfactory; at college he continued to distinguish himself by the assiduity and regularity with which he pursued his studies. Having selected the law as his profession, he entered the Middle temple on the 20th of November, 1741. It cost the young collegian no small effort to tear himself from the society of his beloved muses—for such a sacrifice he deemed necessary to final success in the path of life which he had chosen for himself. The feelings with which he made the exchange are admirably expressed in some verses from his pen entitled 'The Lawyer's Farewell to his Muse,' published in the fourth volume of Dodsley's collection. In November, 1743, he was elected into the society of All Souls' college. On the 12th of June,

1745, he commenced bachelor of civil law, and on the 28th of November, 1746, he was called to the bar.

Mr Blackstone remained unnoticed for several years, and of course acquired little practice. But having been elected bursar at Oxford, soon after he had taken his degree, and finding the muniments of the college in a very confused state, he employed a portion of his leisure in reducing them into order. He also superintended the arrangement of the Codrington library about this time. On the 26th of April, 1750, he commenced doctor of civil law. In this year appeared his 'Essay on Collateral consanguinity,' which had been suggested by the regulation of his college, according to which all who could prove themselves of kin to the founder had a preferable right of election into the society. In the summer of 1753 he resolved to retire from the practice of a profession the profits of which failed to cover his expenses, and to support himself by his fellowship and private lecturing. He had already been recommended to the chair of civil law at Oxford by Mr Murray, afterwards Lord Mansfield, but on being introduced to the duke of Newcastle, and questioned by his grace whether, in case of any political agitation in the university, his majesty's government might rely upon his exertions, "Your grace may be assured that I will discharge my duty in giving law-lectures to the best of my poor ability," was the reply. "And your duty in the other branch too?" added his grace. Mr Blackstone merely bowed in answer, and a few days after Dr Jenner was appointed to the vacant chair.<sup>1</sup> In the ensuing Michaelmas term he commenced reading his 'Lectures on the Laws of England' to a very crowded class. Of these lectures he published an 'Analysis' in 1756. In that year Mr Viner, the laborious compiler of an extensive abridgment of the English law, died, and bequeathed the whole profits of his compilation to the university, for the purpose of promoting the study of the common law. Mr Viner's benefaction led to the foundation of a professorship of English law, to which Mr Blackstone was immediately appointed with a salary of £200. His introductory lecture, afterwards prefixed to the first volume of the 'Commentaries,' has been greatly and most deservedly admired. In 1759 he resumed practice in London, visiting Oxford at stated times only for the delivery of his lectures. In the same year he edited a magnificent edition of *Magna Charta* and the *Forest charter*. Both these works issued from the Clarendon press, of which he had been the principal reformer. In 1761 he was elected representative for Hindon in Wiltshire; and on the 6th of May following had a patent of precedence granted to him to rank as king's counsel, having a few months before declined the office of chief-justice of the court of common pleas in Ireland. Mr Blackstone now vacated his fellowship by marriage, and was soon after appointed principal of New Inn hall. In 1763 he received the appointment of solicitor-general to the queen. Many imperfect and incorrect copies of his lectures had by this time been circulated in manuscript amongst the profession, and a pirated edition of them was understood to be passing through the press. Mr Blackstone therefore found himself under the necessity of taking the work of publication into his own hands, and, in November, 1765, the first volume of his 'Commentaries on the Laws

<sup>1</sup> Holliday's *Life of Mansfield*, p. 89.

of England' was published. The other three volumes of this great work appeared in the course of the four succeeding years. Mr Blackstone's performance almost instantly superseded the initiatory professional works, such as 'Finch's Law' and 'Wood's Institutes'; but detractors and censors were not wanting to assail it, and thoroughly sift its claims to public approbation. Amongst the latter class was one whose opinions on such a point were not to be treated with disrespect. In 1776 Mr Jeremy Bentham published a 'Comment on the Commentaries,' in which he especially, and certainly not without reason, censures 'the antipathy to reformation' which he everywhere discovered in Mr Blackstone's work. But Mr Roscoe has justly remarked "that Mr Blackstone did not profess, in the language of Mr Bentham, to be a censor, but merely an expositor of the law."<sup>2</sup> His object was, in fact, to show what the law of England is, not what it ought to be. And Mr Bentham has himself pronounced the following high eulogium upon the excellent method and exquisite style of Mr Blackstone's work:—"Correct, elegant, unembarrassed, ornamented, the style is such as could scarce fail to recommend a work still more vicious in point of matter to the multitude of readers. He it is, in short, who, first of all institutional writers, has taught jurisprudence to speak the language of the scholar and the gentleman; put a polish upon that rugged science; cleansed her from the dust and cobwebs of the office; and if he has not enriched her with that precision which is drawn only from the sterling treasury of the sciences, has decked her out, however, to advantage, from the toilet of classic erudition; enlivened her with metaphors and allusions; and sent her abroad in some measure to instruct, and in still greater measure to entertain, the most miscellaneous and even the most fastidious societies. The merit to which, as much perhaps as to any, the work stands indebted for its reputation, is the enchanting harmony of its numbers; a kind of merit that of itself is sufficient to give a certain degree of celebrity to a work devoid of every other: so much is man governed by the ear." On the style of the Commentaries a high panegyric has been pronounced by Mr Fox. In a letter addressed to Mr Trotter, he says, "You, of course, read Blackstone over and over again; and if so, pray tell me whether you agree with me in thinking his style of English the very best among our modern writers; always easy and intelligible, far more correct than Hume, and less studied and made up than Robertson." Of the political tendencies of the Commentaries, however, Mr Fox expressed a very different opinion. In the debate on the admission of Lord Ellenborough into the cabinet, the authority of Mr Justice Blackstone having been relied on, Mr Fox said, "His purity of style I particularly admire. He was distinguished as much for simplicity and strength as any writer in the English language. He was perfectly free from all Gallicisms and ridiculous affectations, for which so many of our modern authors and orators are so remarkable. Upon this ground, therefore, I esteem Judge Blackstone; but as a constitutional writer he is by no means an object of my esteem; and for this amongst other reasons, that he asserts the latter years of the reign of Charles the Second, (I mean those which followed the enactment of the habeas corpus act,) to have been the most constitutional period to

<sup>2</sup> Roscoe's *Lives of Eminent Lawyers*, in *Lardner's Cyclopædia*, p. 249.

be found in our history, not excepting any period that followed. Now it would be inconsistent with all the principles which I ever held, to regard such a writer as a constitutional authority, much less to look up to him as an oracle."

In 1766 Mr Blackstone resigned his professorship, and the place of principal of New Inn hall. In 1768 he was returned for Westbury in Wiltshire, and took a part in the debates relative to the election of Mr Wilkes. On the resignation of Mr Dunning, in 1770, the vacant solicitor-generalship was offered to Sir William, who declined it in consequence of the wish he now felt to retire from political life. The same year, however, he was made one of the judges in the court of common pleas. Mr Roscoe thinks that the legal acquirements of the author of the 'Commentaries' rather declined than advanced upon the promotion of its author to the bench. About Christmas, 1779, symptoms of water in the chest appeared in him, and the disease rapidly gaining upon him, he expired on the 14th of February, 1780. In political sentiments Sir William Blackstone was a moderate tory, and his appearance was not prepossessing, but his private character is represented by his biographer, Mr Clitherow, as having been unexceptionable. He maintained upon the bench an appearance of dignity and gravity which was often misconstrued for austerity; but in private life, and in the company of friends, he was always cheerful and often facetious.

### Edward, Lord Hawke.

BORN A. D. 1705.—DIED A. D. 1781.

THIS celebrated admiral was the only son of Edward Hawke, barrister at law, and E beth, his wife, relict of Colonel Ruthven. He entered the navy at a very early age; and it is recorded of him that his father having held out to him the hope that he might in time become a captain, the boy exclaimed, "If I did not think I should rise to be an admiral, I would never go!"

After a regular progression through the several subordinate situations, he was, in 1734, appointed commander of the Wolfe sloop of war, and was thence promoted, in the same year, to the Flamborough frigate. In 1739 he was ordered to the West Indies. Soon after this he was appointed to the Berwick, a third-rate, one of the ships ordered to the Mediterranean for the purpose of reinforcing Admiral Mathews. The encounter off Toulon was the first occasion in which he had an opportunity of distinguishing himself in any particular manner. He bore a conspicuous share in that memorable encounter; and if every officer in the fleet had exerted himself as spiritedly as Hawke, there is reason to believe the combined fleets of France and Spain would either have been captured or annihilated. The greatest injury inflicted on the enemy was effected by himself: the Poder, a Spanish ship of the line, the only one taken or destroyed in the encounter, having been captured by the Berwick, unaided by any other ship. Several officers boarded the prize, but the captain of the vanquished vessel, pointing to the Berwick, which Hawke commanded, declared his submission to that vessel only, and his contempt for all the others belonging to the English squadron.

Hawke, it seems, disregarding discipline, had broken from the line of battle, and engaged the *Poder*—which had previously beaten off two of the British fleet—with such irresistible fury that she was compelled to strike her colours. The French fleet afterwards tacked upon and retook her, but found her so disabled that they deserted her. For this act of heroism Hawke was brought to a court-martial, and sentenced to be dismissed from the service. He was, however, immediately restored by the king, who ever after designated him as his own admiral.

In 1747 he was promoted to be rear-admiral of the white, and immediately afterwards appointed to command a strong squadron ordered to sea in the hope of intercepting a numerous fleet of merchant-ships, collected at the isle of Aix, and intended to be convoyed to America by a formidable force under the command of M. de L'Etendiere. Hawke hoisted his flag on board the *Devonshire*, of sixty-six guns, and sailed from Plymouth, on the 9th of August, with thirteen men-of-war, and nine third-rates, under his orders. A dull and unimportant cruise of long continuance, off the coast of Brittany, was at length repaid by a sight of the French squadron, on the 14th of October, soon after daylight. The force of the enemy was discovered to consist of eleven or twelve ships of war. Admiral Hawke immediately gave the signal to form the line a-head. One or two ships of war, together with several large frigates, were ordered by the French commodore to make all possible sail with the charge committed to his protection; the remainder, consisting of eight sail, he drew into line, for the purpose of favouring the escape of his friends. The action commenced about half-past eleven, between the leading ships of the English and the rear of the enemy, and the action soon became general. The admiral compelled the first ship he encountered to strike; but, leaving her to be taken possession of by the frigates astern, he proceeded to assist the *Eagle* and *Edinburgh*. The fight was well-maintained by the enemy, whose large ships—to use Hawke's phrase—"took a great deal of drubbing." At seven in the evening, the *Terrible*, of seventy-four guns, the last of six ships of the line which surrendered on this occasion, having struck, and *Le Tonnant* and *L'Intrepide* having effected their escape, Hawke deemed it prudent to make the signal to bring to, in order to collect his ships and their several prizes. The merchantmen for the time escaped; but several of them afterwards fell into the hands of Commodore Pococke.

Soon after his return the admiral was made a knight-companion of the Bath; and, in December following, he was returned to parliament for Portsmouth. In January, 1748, he sailed, with nine ships of the line, on a cruise in the bay of Biscay, during which the *Magnanime*, of seventy-four guns, was captured by two of his squadron. In the following May he became vice-admiral of the blue, and an elder brother of the Trinity-house. In 1749 he commanded the convoy sent to North America with settlers for Nova Scotia; and, in the words of Collins, "he performed this duty with all that integrity and care that could be expected from a person of his honour and veracity." The same author adds, "that having, after the commencement of peace, acted as president of several naval courts-martial, he always took the greatest care to distribute justice without any regard to rank or connections: the innocent were sure to meet with his protection, and the guilty to feel the rod of punishment." In the month of July, 1749, he

presided on the trial of Lieutenant Couchman and others, for piratically running away with his majesty's ship the *Chesterfield*; and very soon afterwards on the trial of an officer of rank, for disobedience of orders. In the month of December, 1749, he sat in the court-martial held at Deptford for the trial of Rear-admiral Knowles; and in the month of February following, on the trials of Captains Holmes and Powlett. In 1750 he was appointed to the Portsmouth command. On the 15th of August he entertained, on board the *Monarch*, his flag-ship, then lying at Spithead, their royal highnesses the prince and princess of Wales.

After the disastrous affair at Minorca, Hawke was sent to supersede Admiral Byng. He acted with great spirit during this cruise in the Mediterranean, especially in compelling the Austrian government to release Fortunatus Wright, the captain of an English privateer, who had been thrown into prison by the authorities at Leghorn, for an alleged violation of the neutrality of that port.

In 1757, Sir Edward, now vice-admiral of the white, was selected to command an expedition equipped for the attack of Rochefort. His force consisted of no less than sixteen ships of the line, two bomb-ketches, two fire-ships, two busses, one store-ship, and fifty-five transports, exclusive of the *Jason*, of forty guns, employed as a transport, and the *Chesterfield*, as a repeating frigate. The land-forces consisted of ten regiments of infantry, two of marines, a squadron of light-horse, and a proportionate train of artillery. Formidable as was the force of this armament, the delays and hesitation of the general and other land officers, rendered the whole project abortive. No blame, however, was ever attached to Sir Edward, whose advice was rejected by Sir John Mordaunt, the commander of the land forces. Having returned to Portsmouth with the transports and troops, he again repaired to his station off the coast of France, for the purpose of blocking up the several ports and preventing any smaller armaments from putting to sea. He was almost uninterruptedly occupied in this line of service, without meeting with any memorable incident, till the 3d of April, 1757, when he got sight of a squadron and convoy belonging to the enemy, off the isle of Aix. It was intended for North America, and consisted of seven ships of the line, as many frigates, and forty merchant vessels or transports. At the approach of the English fleet, the enemy immediately slipped their cables and fled towards shore; and by throwing the guns, stores, ammunition, provisions, and even their ballast, overboard from the men-of-war, together with part of the cargoes from the merchant vessels, they succeeded in dragging their ships up the Charente, and through the mud, into the harbour of Rochefort.

In 1758, he held a command in the fleet under Lord Anson; but, while in the bay of Biscay, he was attacked by a violent fever which compelled him to return to Portsmouth and quit active service. In the following year, he commanded the blockading squadron off Brest, which, being driven into Torbay by a tempest, M. de Conflans, with the French fleet, as soon as the storm had abated, put to sea. Hawke soon followed, and, on the morning of the 20th November, descried the enemy off Belleisle. On this occasion he told his officers that he did not intend to trouble himself by forming lines; for that "he would attack them in his old way, and make downright work with them." A most spirited, though irregular contest, necessarily occasioned by the

inclemency of the weather, and the rocky coast on which the action took place, immediately commenced. The British van attacked the rear of the French about half-past two o'clock in the afternoon : each of the foremost ships as they advanced poured a broadside into the sternmost of the enemy, and then bore down on their van. Hawke, in the *Royal George*, without returning the fire of several other ships, passed on towards the *Soleil Royal*, which bore Admiral Conflans' flag, and was nearly surrounded by breakers. When apprized by his pilot of the danger of advancing, he is said to have coolly replied, "You have done your duty in pointing out the danger ; you are now to comply with my order, and lay me alongside the *Soleil*." The captain of the *Thésée*, a French ship of seventy guns, as the *Royal George* approached the *Soleil Royal*, gallantly interposed his own vessel to save that of his commander. The *Thésée*, consequently, received a broadside, intended for the French admiral's ship, and so terrific was its effect, that as soon as the smoke had cleared away, the tops of her masts alone were visible, and in another moment the sea rolled over her colours. The fight raged till night. In the morning the *Soleil Royal* finding herself in the midst of the English fleet, ran on shore, and was afterwards burnt. The same fate attended the *Héros*, of seventy-four guns. The *Thésée*, *Superbe*, and *Juste*, were sunk ; and the *Formidable*, of eighty guns, bearing the rear-admiral's flag, was captured. Sir Edward, in his official despatches, assigned the following modest excuse for the loss of his antagonists not having been much greater than it proved : "In attacking a flying enemy, it was impossible in a short winter's day that all our ships should be able to get into action ; or all those of the enemy brought to it. The commanders and companies of such as did come up with the rear of the French, on the 20th, behaved with the greatest intrepidity, and gave the strongest proof of a true British spirit. In the same manner I am satisfied those would have acquitted themselves, whose bad going ships, or the distance they were at in the morning, prevented from getting up. Our loss by the enemy is not considerable ; for in the ships which are now with me, I find only one lieutenant and thirty-nine seamen and marines killed, and about two hundred and two wounded. When I consider the season of the year, the hard gales on the day of action, a flying enemy, the shortness of the day, and the coast we were on, I can boldly affirm, that all that could possibly be done has been done. As to the loss we have sustained, let it be placed to the account of the necessity I was under of running all risks, to break this strong force of the enemy. Had we had but two hours more daylight, the whole had been totally destroyed or taken ; for we were almost up with the van, when night overtook us."

Sir Edward did not return to Plymouth till the 17th of January in the ensuing year ; the whole of the intermediate time being employed in cruising off the coast of Brittany. He was received in England with the greatest enthusiasm. A pension of £2000 a-year was immediately bestowed on him, with a reversion to his sons, and the survivor of them, by his majesty ; and on the 28th of January following, being the first day of his attendance in the house of commons as member for the town of Portsmouth, he received the thanks of the house from the speaker.

In the month of August, 1760, he resumed the command of the fleet



stationed in Quiberon bay. On the 4th of January, 1762, the appointment of rear-admiral of England was bestowed upon him; and, on the resignation of Mr Osborne, on the 5th of November, 1765, he was made vice-admiral of Great Britain. On the 2d of the ensuing month, he was appointed first commissioner for executing the office of lord-high-admiral,—a station which he continued to fill with the highest honour till the 10th of January, 1771, when he voluntarily resigned it. He was created by letters patent, bearing date, May 20th, 1776, a peer of Great Britain, by the style and title of Baron Hawke of Tawton, county of York. He died, universally respected and lamented, on the 14th of October, 1781, at Sunbury, in Middlesex; and was buried at Swaithling, near Botley, in the county of Hants.

His lordship married Catharine, daughter of Walter Brooke of Burton-hall, in the county of York; and by that lady had issue, three sons and one daughter. He was succeeded in his title by Martin Bladen, his eldest son.

### **Wentworth, Marquess of Rockingham.**

BORN A. D. 1730.—DIED A. D. 1782.

CHARLES WATSON WENTWORTH, only son of Thomas Watson Wentworth, created Marquess of Rockingham in 1746, by Mary, daughter of the earl of Winchelsea, was born on the 13th of May, 1730. The estates of the earls of Strafford of the first creation, with their surname of Wentworth, had passed to his paternal grandfather, who had already a splendid patrimony by the death of William the second earl. The subject of this notice succeeded therefore to an immense estate upon the death of his father in 1750. On coming of age, in 1751, he took his seat in the house of peers; on the 9th of July in that year, he was constituted lord-lieutenant of the county of York; and in 1760, he was made a knight of the garter.

In 1763, disgusted with the proceedings of Lord Bute, then the reigning favourite at court, he resigned the situation of a lord of the bed-chamber, which he had for some time before held, and also his lord-lieutenancy of Yorkshire. Two years had scarcely elapsed, however, when the whole system of government having undergone a change, he was appointed, on the 10th of July, 1765, first lord of the treasury. The death of the duke of Cumberland, and the proceedings in America, excited by Grenville's stamp act, placed Rockingham and his colleagues in a trying situation. For a time they hesitated as to the repeal of the obnoxious act. At last they resolved it should be repealed, but that a declaratory act asserting the supreme authority of the mother country should be passed at the same time. Burke probably suggested this measure; it at least had his strenuous advocacy. It was also known to have the approval of Franklin, who was then in England, and in communication with the ministry. This line of policy was a dubious one; it was calculated to unite against ministers the two extreme parties,—one of whom contended for the expediency and right of taxing America, and the other strenuously denied both. The following extracts from letters written by secretary Conway to his brother Lord

Hertford, who had been appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland by the new cabinet, exhibit the prospect of ministers at this period.

Writing from London, under date, 7th November, 1765, Mr Conway says: "Your opposition of nine is a pretty little opposition. I should be glad to compound with our opposers for six times that number, and on this head have an unpleasant article to tell you, which is, that Barré has refused; I have this day received his very civil, but direct excuse. He is pleased to say he knows very little of the present administration but myself, and has no knowledge of the plans of government, &c. That is the fashionable language of the great, and almost of the little too; every body is minister, every body plans and lays systems of government. Happy times, which abound in so many great and wise men! What I observe in general is, that every body knows how to govern, but those that should. I know you'll think our affairs quite desperate, after the chasm the poor Duke (Cumberland) has made, and this capital refusal. Yet we don't at all think so—nor does his majesty; but rather flatter ourselves the strength on the whole is good and promising. Ch. T. (Townshend) is very much disposed and very sanguine; my lord-chancellor declares himself roundly and strongly, and laughs at all despondency. It is not foreign from our thoughts, privately to sound Mr P. (Pitt); to do it publicly would hurt the cause in this moment; though some time hence it might do us service to have it known it was done. Don't be surprised, *entre nous*, if you hear that I am out again, I mean out of what I am in. You know how I hate this life, and it raises my spirits much to think I see an hole to creep out at. C. T. (Charles Townshend) with all his cordiality, fixes conditions to his good will. Confidence and the cabinet were the word a little while ago; now he wishes to be useful, and the way in which he can be so most, is as leader of the house. I closed at once, with the addition, that he should then be secretary of state too—this only to Lord R. (Rockingham) and the D. of G. (Duke of Grafton, the other secretary of state) to whom I think aloud; but to-day I have privately heard, that he has said in a letter that things were changed since he refused; he did it then on his brother's account, &c., which gives me hopes of doing what I much wish, laying aside my grandeur and my trouble, and the slavery of being tied to a desk, and taking his comfortable employment now, till I can wind about again into the situation I wish in the army. That's my plan; it suits all my views and ambition, though it will be despised and condemned by many: if I felt that much, it's clear I should not choose it. This for ourselves: that I dislike my station all the world may know." On the 14th November he writes: "You say I must have been in Ireland to know how much business you have. I was in Ireland, and to be sure not in an idle station,<sup>1</sup> yet for my sins it is now in England I learn what business really is, and learn to be so sick of it, I envy every captain I see." In a subsequent part of his letter he says: "I have little news of a domestic kind. I believe I told you Barré refuses; that you'll dislike, and yet I think we much rather gain than lose ground on the whole, notwithstanding even our late unhappy loss" (the death of the duke

<sup>1</sup> He had been Irish secretary in 1755, when the marquess of Hartington was lord-lieutenant.

of Cumberland.) On the 27th of December, during the adjournment, he writes: "As to our affairs here, I can tell you nothing new, at least with any certainty. Mr Pitt has declared, in general terms, strongly in favour of our measures, yet he keeps at Bath, and at a distance every way. Beckford, Cooke, Prowse, and other independent men, are strongly with us; if any thing goes wrong, it will be by a rottenness within. A certain party keep aloof, and the world says are certainly forming a *bande à parte*: I mean Lord B.'s (Bute's) friends—the two Townshends particularly; and if they have a mind, the American affairs will give them an opportunity to be troublesome. Lord Shelburne and Barré seem particularly fixed nowhere. Lord Temple and Lord Lyttleton will, I think, both oppose. The lord-chancellor and the Yorke are, in appearance, very firm. Lord Mansfield and Lord Camden doubtful. This is a little sketch of our political anatomy. What opinion does it give you?"

When parliament re-assembled on the 14th of January, 1766, no amendment was moved to the address in the lords; but an interesting debate took place in the commons. Pitt approved of the address on the ground that it decided nothing, and left every member at perfect liberty to take such a part concerning America as he might afterwards see fit. Turning to Grenville, near to whom he stood, he said that, as to the late ministry, every capital measure they had taken had been entirely wrong. Then looking over to the bench where Conway sat with the lords of the treasury, he proceeded: "As to the present gentlemen, to those at least whom I have in my eye, I have no objection; I have never been made a sacrifice by any of them. Their characters are fair; and I am always glad when men of fair character engage in his majesty's service. Some of them have done me the honour to ask my poor opinion before they would engage. These will do me the justice to own I advised them to engage; but, notwithstanding, I love to be explicit; I cannot give them my confidence; pardon me, gentlemen, (bowing to the ministry,) confidence is a plant of slow growth in an aged bosom; youth is the season of credulity. By comparing events with each other, reasoning from effects to causes, methinks I plainly discover the traces of an overruling influence." He then stated his opinions as to American affairs: "It is my opinion," he said, "that this kingdom has no right to levy a tax upon the colonies. At the same time I assert the authority of this kingdom over the colonies to be sovereign and supreme in every circumstance of government and legislation whatsoever. Taxation is no part of the governing or legislative power. The taxes are a voluntary gift and grant of the commons alone. In legislation, the three estates of the realm are alike concerned; but the concurrence of the peers and the crown to tax is only necessary to close with the form of a law. The gift and grant is of the commons alone." When Pitt sat down, Conway rose and emphatically denied the existence of the overruling influence (that, namely, of Lord Bute) at which Pitt had hinted. "I see nothing of it," he said; "I feel nothing of it; I disclaim it for myself, and as far as my discernment can reach, for all the rest of his majesty's ministers." The address was voted without a division, in the terms proposed by ministers.

On the 10th of February, five resolutions were moved by ministers,  
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asserting the full sovereignty of the mother country, and reprobating the resistance which had been offered to the stamp act. Nothing was said as to the repeal of that act.

On the 13th of February, Conway writes: "As to politics I can scarce say what it is in my power to tell you. Our divisions in the two houses respectively you have heard: their consequences are not easily ascertained. His majesty had told Lord Rockingham and the duke of Grafton that he was for the repeal; but he on Tuesday told Lord Strange that he was not so now—that he wished his opinion to be known, and his lordship might declare it. This ran through the house of commons and the town, and has had an odd effect. Our ministerial lives were not thought worth three days' purchase. His majesty has been pleased to explain himself to us; that he always was for the repeal, when contrasted with enforcing the whole act, but not as compared with modification. We told his majesty this distinction was unfortunately not explained to us; and that in consequence we had, as he had allowed Lord Rockingham particularly to do, declared his majesty to be for the repeal; and that on all accounts we were engaged and obliged to push that measure. It was very mortifying to us, and very unhappy, that it now appeared to be against his majesty's sentiments, which put us into an odd predicament, being under a necessity of carrying on a great public measure against his majesty's declared sentiments, and with great numbers of his servants acting against us. He was not displeased he said with our freedom—thought we acted like honest men—had no design of parting us—always foresaw the difficulties which might attend this business—but, that once over, he hoped all things would go smoothly again. You see that this might branch out into very long details, had I time for them; but this is the substance. 'Tis a whimsical situation, and what will be the event I don't know. I think the bill of repeal will probably pass, because our disposition for it is too strong in the house of commons for any thing now to conquer; and the lords, I think, with submission, dare not resist it."

On the 21st of February a committee of the whole house determined that a bill should be brought in for the repeal of the stamp act. On bringing up the report an amendment upon the resolution was rejected by a majority of 240 to 133. Mr Conway, writing to his brother on the 27th, says: "Our act of repeal is read the second time to-day, together with that of right—if they'll permit us; but the determined opposition hitherto given, and promised as we proceed in any stage of this bill, makes it impossible to determine the progress we shall make." In a subsequent letter, dated the 5th of March, he writes: "I don't wonder you are puzzled with our politics: they never were more a riddle. However, on Tuesday the repeal bill passed our house by a majority of 250 to 122, though under the same disadvantages as to the parties engaged against it. Nothing could more strongly mark this than a ridiculous incident which happened that night in the house; for Mr B. Gascoigne—for what reasons he perhaps may know—read a letter in the house which he said was writ to a person at Liverpool. In it was an account of one of our former debates and divisions, which, it said, was carried by a great majority, notwithstanding there were joined in the opposition to it all Lord Bute's friends, the duke of Bedford's, Mr Grenville's, and the tories; and the letter ended by saying that Mr

Pitt must soon be at the head of affairs. You may imagine the effect so strange a circumstance must produce,—the gross impropriety of reading a private letter,—the direct denomination of persons,—and the awkwardness to the parties concerned. However, the novelty of the thing, the curiosity, and the satisfaction of the majority in the house, and the conscious shame in others, were so prevalent, that the absurdity of the fact was lost and forgot: the more, as Mr Pitt, with infinite cleverness, seized the opportunity,—talked of the history of the times,—the supposed conjunction of parties, at least the attempts towards it,—and the conferences that ‘a bird sung’ had been held, alluding to the well-known conversations between the duke of Bedford and Grenville, and my lord Bute, in which he (Pitt) said, ‘if the bird sung true,’ that nobleman, in refusing to enter into any combinations, had done himself honour, and showed himself a friend to his king, and to the true interest of his country, &c. I suppose you know that Lord Bute and his friends have published, that in these conferences the duke of Bedford and George Grenville actually recanted all their former abuse and behaviour, and proposed friendship and alliance; and that his lordship, with great dignity, said, ‘It was pleasing to any man to have justice done him, and that he had no objection to their friendship which they offered; but that, if they meant to go farther, and to propose any kind of political connection, or any factious engagement, he was resolved to have no part in it, &c.’ You may imagine, then, how these explanations embarrassed the Grenville and Bedford party. Mr Grenville showed it to the greatest degree,—spoke in great anger, and called upon Mr Pitt for farther explanation, but gave none himself; and Mr Pitt, who replied in the same strain of temper and humour he had spoke in before, only said coolly, he saw no reason the gentleman had to be angry; and that, having told all he had heard of the story, he did not see how any farther explanation was wanting. The bill was carried up yesterday: the repeal by me, and the bill of right by our chairman, Mr Rose Fuller. To-morrow the lords will take the latter into consideration; the other, I think, probably not till Monday, and I have no doubt of its being carried there. For the rest, our affairs are still critical in the ministerial light. I think, however, I see daylight for some solid settlement; I wish I could say it was clearer. Mr Pitt is not averse to coming in, but sees great difficulties, he says, almost to impracticability.” The repeal bill encountered great opposition in the house of lords, but eventually passed. The dukes of Newcastle and Grafton, and the chancellor, who shortly before had seemed adverse to the measure, with Lords Camden and Shelburne, supported the bill. On the other hand, it was opposed by Viscount Townshend, Lord Mansfield, the duke of Bedford, Lord Lyttleton, and Earl Temple. When the house divided, the numbers were found to be: contents, 105; not contents, 71. The minority recorded on the journals their hostility to the measure in a long protest, which was signed by thirty-three peers. Among the reasons assigned by the noble lords for their dissent were the following: “Because it appears to us, that a most essential branch of that authority, the power of taxation, cannot be equitably or impartially exercised, if it does not extend itself to all the members of the state, in proportion to their respective abilities, but suffers a part to be exempt from a due share of those burdens which the public exigencies

require to be imposed upon the whole : a partiality, directly repugnant to the trust reposed by the people in every legislature, and destructive of that confidence on which all government is founded. Because the ability of our North American colonies to bear, without inconvenience, the proportion laid on them by the stamp act, appears unquestionable. Its estimated produce of sixty thousand pounds per annum, if divided amongst twelve hundred thousand people, being little more than one-half the subjects of the crown in North America, would be only one shilling per head a-year. Because not only the right, but the expediency and necessity, of the supreme legislature's exerting its authority to lay a general tax on the colonies, whenever the wants of the public make it fitting and reasonable that all the provinces should contribute in a proper proportion to the defence of the whole, appear undeniable. Such a general tax could not be regularly imposed by their own separate provincial assemblies. Because the reasons assigned in the public resolutions of the provincial assemblies, in the North American colonies, for their disobeying the stamp act, viz. 'That they are not represented in the parliament of Great Britain,' extends to all other laws of what nature soever, which that parliament has enacted, or shall enact; and may, by the same reasoning, be extended to all persons in this island, who do not actually vote for members of parliament: nor can we help apprehending, that the opinion of some countenance being given to such notions by the legislature itself, in consenting to this bill for the repeal of the stamp act, may greatly promote the contagion of a most dangerous doctrine, destructive to all government, which has spread itself over all our North American colonies, that the obedience of the subject is not due to the laws and legislature of the realm, farther than he, in his private judgment, shall think it conformable to the ideas he has formed of a free constitution. Because we think it no effectual guard against this danger, that the parliament has declared in a bill, that such notions are ill founded; as men will look always more to deeds than words, and may therefore incline to believe that the insurrections in the colonies, excited by those notions, having attained the very point at which they aimed, without any previous submission on their part, the legislature has, in fact, submitted to them, and has only more grievously injured its own dignity and authority by verbally asserting that right which it substantially yields up to their opposition; and this at a time when the strength of our colonies, as well as their desire of a total independence on the legislature and government of their mother country, may be greatly augmented; and when the circumstances and dispositions of the other powers of Europe may render the contest far more dangerous and formidable to this kingdom."

The formidable dangers and embarrassments by which Lord Rockingham and his colleagues were surrounded on all sides, have been forcibly sketched by Mr Burke in his great speech in 1774: "The noble lord who then conducted affairs, and his worthy colleagues, whilst they trembled at the prospect of such distresses as you have since brought upon yourselves, were not afraid steadily to look in the face that glaring and dazzling influence at which the eyes of eagles have blanched. He looked in the face of one of the ablest—and, let me say, not the most scrupulous—oppositions, that perhaps ever was in this house; and withstood it, unaided by even one of the usual supports of

administration. He did this when he repealed the stamp act. He looked in the face of a person he had long respected and regarded, and whose aid was then particularly wanting: I mean Lord Chatham. He did this when he passed the declaratory act."—"I confess, when I look back to that time, I consider him as placed in one of the most trying situations in which, perhaps, any man ever stood. In the house of peers there were very few of the ministry, out of the noble lord's own particular connexion—except Lord Egmont, who acted, as far as I could discern, an honourable and manly part—that did not look to some other future arrangement, which warped his politics. There were in both houses new and menacing appearances, that might very naturally drive any other than a most resolute minister from his measure or from his station. The household-troops openly revolted. The allies of the ministry—those, I mean, who supported some of their measures, but refused responsibility for any—endeavoured to undermine their credit, and to take ground that must be fatal to the success of the very cause which they would be thought to countenance. The question of the repeal was brought on by ministry, in the committee of this house, in the very instant when it was known that more than one court-negotiation was carrying on with the heads of the opposition. Every thing, upon every side, was full of traps and mines. Earth below shook; heaven above menaced; all the elements of ministerial safety were dissolved. It was in the midst of this chaos of plots and counterplots,—it was in the midst of this complicated warfare against public opposition and private treachery, that the firmness of that noble person was put to the proof. He never stirred from his ground—no, not an inch; he remained fixed and determined in principle, in measures, and in conduct; he practised no managements; he secured no retreat; he sought no apology."

It appears that so early as the end of February an attempt to open a negotiation with Pitt had been made by Lord Rockingham himself. On the 29th of April, Mr Conway writes: "We are in a most embarrassed situation here, and all business either moves slowly, or stands still. While I was ill Mr Pitt took a fit of rest, because he was not applied to nor treated with; he came down one day, picked a German quarrel, and fell upon the ministry pretty roughly; since that, he has continued much in the same strain, though still professing not to act hostilely, and speaking with particular regard of the duke of Grafton and myself. He has not, however, done any thing directly hostile, except on the militia affair; but Lord Shelburne's brother voted against Mr Dowdeswell on the tax, last day. Barré was now absent; but Beckford, Cooke, &c., voted for it. I went with the duke of Grafton, last night, to Mr Pitt, as I have been absent all this time, and not yet at the house, to see if there was a possible means yet of doing anything with him, and to express my opinion and inclinations, and my vexation for what had happened during my illness, when he thought himself slighted and neglected. He was exceedingly civil, and I think, too, as much disposed to come in; but then the insuperable bar of his going immediately to the king remains; he makes it a *sine qua non*; and his majesty is strongly resolved against it. So there, I think, it ends. The duke of Grafton on this has taken his absolute resolution to resign; and it seems doubtful for the rest whether we shall or can go on. Lord Bute's

people have still been shy, and none of them have given any support; which if it does not alter, it is ridiculous to continue; it must immediately be resolved."

On the 1st of August, 1766, the administration of Lord Rockingham was declared to be at an end. A summary of its services, shortly after drawn up by Mr Burke, and published under the title of 'A Short Account of a Short Administration,' thus concludes: "The removal of that administration from power is not to them premature, since they were in office long enough to accomplish many plans of public utility, and by their perseverance and resolution rendered the way smooth and easy to their successors; having left their king and their country in a much better situation than they found them. By the temper they manifest, they seem to have no other wish than that their successors may do the public as real and as faithful service as they have done."

During North's administration the marquess of Rockingham was regarded as the head of the opposition in the house of lords; but he did not take any violent part in the struggles of party.

In March, 1782, when the efforts of Fox had finally succeeded in overturning Lord North's administration, the marquess of Rockingham again took office as premier. Much was anticipated from his political integrity and liberal sentiments; but the hopes of the nation were disappointed by his sudden death on the 1st of July, which broke up the administration.

### Sir Hyde Parker.

BORN A. D. 1711.—DIED A. D. 1782.

THIS gallant officer entered the navy about the year 1744. In 1748 he was appointed to the *Lively* frigate, whence he was promoted to the *Squirrel*. In 1760 he was sent, in the *Norfolk*, to the East Indies. In 1762 he had the good fortune, while cruising in the *Argo*, to capture the *Santissima Trinidad*, a Spanish frigate, with a cargo worth nearly £600,000. In 1778 he was made rear, and subsequently vice-admiral of the blue. While in charge of a convoy, on the 5th of August, 1779, he fell in with a Dutch squadron off the Dogger bank. "I was happy to find," he observes, in his despatches, "that I had the wind of them; as the great number of their large frigates might otherwise have endangered my convoy. Having separated the men-of-war from the merchant-ships, and made a signal to the last to keep their wind, I bore away with a general signal to chase. The enemy formed their line, consisting of eight two-decked ships, on the starboard tack:—ours, including the *Dolphin*, consisting of seven. Not a gun was fired on either side, until within the distance of half musket-shot. The *Fortitude* then being abreast of the Dutch admiral, the action began, and continued, with an unceasing fire, for three hours and forty minutes. By this time our ships were unmanageable. I made an effort to form the line, in order to renew the action, but found it impracticable. The *Bienfaisant* had lost her main-top-mast, and the *Buffalo* her fore-yard; the rest of the ships were not less shattered in their masts, rigging, and sails. The enemy appeared to be in as bad a condition. Both squadrons lay to,



a considerable time, near to each other, when the Dutch, with their convoy, bore away for the Texel. We were not in a condition to follow them." "It was well known," remarks Charnock, in his observations on this action, "that several British line-of-battle, or at least of two decks, were then lying at the Nore, in the Downs, at Harwich, and other places contiguous to the scene of encounter, which, it is said, might have joined the admiral previous to the action; thereby insuring the destruction, or capture, of the whole Dutch force, if administration had acted with proper energy, and given timely orders for the different commanders to have effected such a junction. This circumstance, violently insisted upon by one party, and as peremptorily denied by the other, created no small degree of controversy. Certain it is, the admiral considered himself neglected and ill-treated."

In 1782, by the decease of his brother, the Rev. Sir Peter Parker, he became a baronet. The same year he sailed in the *Juno* for the East India station, of which he had been appointed to the chief command; but the vessel perished or blew up at sea, as no tidings were ever received of her, or any of the crew, after leaving the Cape.

### **Dunning, Lord Ashburton.**

BORN A. D. 1731.—DIED A. D. 1783.

JOHN DUNNING was born at Ashburton in Devonshire, on the 18th of October, 1731. Being destined by his father (an attorney) for the profession of the law, he received a liberal education. It was the original intention of his father to settle him in his own neighbourhood, where they could assist each other in their different departments; but young Dunning felt the force of his abilities before that event took place, and wrote to his father, if he would allow him but one hundred pounds per year for some time, he was in hopes of pushing his fortune with much more success in London than the country. The father at first was much averse to this experiment; he at last consented, and the event justified the grounds of his son's application. He was three years at the bar before he received one hundred guineas; but the fourth year he received nearly one thousand pounds.

Among his earliest friends were Mr Kenyon, afterwards Lord Kenyon, and the celebrated Horne Tooke. His argument against general warrants in the case of Wilkes, first brought him into general notice, and he was soon after elected recorder of Bristol. In 1768 he was appointed solicitor-general, and through the influence of Lord Shelburne, returned as member of parliament for Calne. In the debate of the 9th January, 1770, on the address of thanks, Mr Dunning spoke and voted with the minority; and he supported "the address, remonstrance, and petition" of the city of London to the king on the conduct of ministers, in a speech which is reported to have been one of the finest pieces of argument and eloquence ever heard in the house.<sup>1</sup> For having thus, while solicitor-general to his majesty, defended in parliament, on the soundest principles of law and of the constitution, the right of the sub-

<sup>1</sup> Roscoe.

ject to petition and remonstrate, the city presented to him the freedom of their corporation in a gold box. He supported Grenville's bill for regulating the proceedings of the house in cases of controverted elections; and in the debate on Sergeant Glynn's motion argued against Lord Mansfield's doctrine as to libels. In the debate which took place on the 25th of March, 1771, upon the motion for committing the lord-mayor and Alderman Oliver to the Tower for their conduct towards the sergeant-at-arms of the house, Mr Dunning argued keenly against the motion, and took an opportunity of referring to the imperfect state of the representation. In all the debates on American affairs, Mr Dunning was the strenuous opposer of coercive measures on the part of the mother country; and in the debate of the 2d of February, 1775, he maintained that the agitation in America was not to be characterised as a rebellion, but was "created by the wisdom of those who are anxious to establish despotism, and whose views are manifestly directed to reduce America to the most abject state of servility, as a prelude to the realizing the same wicked system in the mother country." In speaking of the conduct of government towards America, which he condemned throughout, he observed, "We are now come to that fatal dilemma,—Resist, and we will cut your throats; submit, and we will tax you:—such is the reward of obedience." In 1778 Mr Dunning supported Sir George Saville's Roman Catholic relief bill. In 1780 he moved in a committee of the house, in a speech which may be regarded as the greatest of his parliamentary efforts, "that it is the opinion of this committee that it is necessary to declare that the influence of the crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished." In the session of 1780–81, the legality of the various associations and societies which had been formed for political purposes, was questioned in parliament, and was maintained with much vigour and eloquence by Mr Dunning. On the accession of the Rockingham administration, Lord Shelburne solicited and obtained a peerage for his friend Mr Dunning, who took his seat accordingly in the upper house with the title of LORD ASHBURTON. In 1780 his lordship married Elizabeth, daughter of John Baring, Esq. of Larkbear; but his health was already in a declining state; and in the month of August, 1783, he departed this life.

Sir Nathaniel Wraxall thus sketches the personal appearance of Lord Ashburton:—"Never perhaps did nature inclose a more illuminated mind in a body of meaner and more abject appearance. It is difficult to do justice to the peculiar species of ugliness which characterised his person and figure, though he did not labour under any absolute deformity of shape or limb; a degree of infirmity, and almost of debility or decay in his organs, augmented the effect of his other bodily misfortunes; even his voice was so husky and choked with phlegm, that it refused utterance to the sentiments which were dictated by his superior intelligence." Of his style of speaking, Sir William Jones says that "it consisted of all the turns, oppositions, and figures, which the old rhetoricians taught, and which Cicero frequently practised. Many at the bar and on the bench thought this a vitiated style; but though dissatisfied as critics, yet, to the confusion of all criticism, they were transported as hearers. That faculty, however, in which no mortal ever surpassed him, and which all found irresistible, was his wit."

Wraxall has given a different opinion on this point, asserting that "Dunning neither delighted nor entertained his hearers; but he subdued them by his powers of argumentative ratiocination which have rarely been exceeded."

Though when in the meridian of his fame, this celebrated lawyer was as little chargeable with the *mauvaise honte* as most of his profession, yet he originally laboured under that degree of diffidence which is often attendant on great abilities. Soon after being called to the bar, he had to speak in an important case before the house of commons. It being his first appearance before so formidable an auditory, he prepared himself with considerable care. But in the hour of trial his presence of mind failed him. He opened in a low tremulous voice, and scarcely had finished his first sentence when, looking to the brief which he held in his hand to refresh his memory, apprehension spread such a mist before his eyes, that he conceived it to be not his brief, but a sheet of white paper which he had caught up in the hurry of leaving his chambers; hoping he might be deceived, he turned it over and over, rubbed his eyes, and looked again; but all in vain! he still saw nothing but the roll of white paper, and under this impression was obliged to retire from the bar half dead with fear and apprehension. To many a young man this would be a final defeat, and considered as a good excuse both by himself and friends to look to some other profession; but Dunning well knew the state of the case;—that it was not ignorance, but the dread of not appearing answerable to his own wishes, which custom and experience would soon remedy; he therefore progressively returned to the charge, and ultimately crowded as much fame and honourable advancement into the compass of a life not long, as the most ambitious mind could reasonably expect. In the full flush of his fame he sometimes fell into the contrary extreme of diffidence; and while cross-examining a witness, would indulge in remarks much below his learning, taste, and station. But he did not always escape unhurt in these sallies. One of the poets of that day rallied him on this unmanly practice. He got another rub from his friend Counsellor Lee—better known by the name of honest Jack Lee—on this account. He was telling Lee that he had that morning purchased some manors in Devonshire. "I wish," said the other, "you could bring them (manners) to Westminster-hall." His acquaintance with Lee began early. Lee was a good, sound, constitutional lawyer; had a manner of hitting his point well, and speaking with a bluntness that appeared very much the natural effect of self-conviction. Dunning—in the language of Lord Mansfield—rather 'noted his understanding' by this intimacy, and Lee derived consequence and practice from it.

### George, Viscount Sackville.

BORN A. D. 1716.—DIED A. D. 1785.

THIS nobleman, of somewhat unfortunate reputation in his day, was the third son of Lionel, first duke of Dorset, by Elizabeth, daughter of General Colyear. He was born on the 26th of January, 1716, and named after his godfather, George I. The early part of his education

was received at Westminster school; on the appointment of his father to the viceroyalty of Ireland, he was sent to the university of Dublin, where he acquired some literary honours.

In 1737 he entered the army, and in 1740 was appointed lieutenant-colonel of General Philip Bragge's regiment of foot, the 28th. He was present at the battles of Dettingen and Fontenoy, and signalized himself in both engagements. He accompanied the duke of Cumberland in his Scottish campaign, and afterwards served abroad with his royal highness in the campaigns of 1747 and 1748. On the 1st of November, 1749, he was promoted to the colonelcy of the twelfth regiment of dragoons; and, in the following January, obtained the command of the king's horse-carbineers in Ireland, of which kingdom he was appointed secretary in 1751. He became a major-general in 1755; colonel of the second regiment of dragoon-guards, and lieutenant-general of the ordnance in 1757, and soon afterwards lieutenant-general of his majesty's forces, and one of the members of the privy-council. For some time he commanded a division of the army encamped near Chatham. While there, on being solicited to permit Whitfield to address the soldiers, he replied: "Tell the gentleman from me, that he may preach any thing he pleases to them, that is not against the articles of war."

In the beginning of June, 1758, another expedition against the court of France was determined on, and the command intrusted to the duke of Marlborough and Lord George Sackville. The armament landed at St Maloe's, and did some damage to the enemy. On the death of the duke in Germany next year, Lord George succeeded him in the command of the British forces, and was placed at the head of the cavalry in the battle of Minden. During the action, the enemy having been thrown into disorder by the allied infantry, Prince Ferdinand, the commander-in-chief, sent orders for Lord George to advance; but either his instructions were not sufficiently precise, or Lord George misunderstood them; and the critical moment was allowed to pass away without the cavalry coming in for their share in the action. In the general orders issued by the commander-in-chief, the following day, Lord George was deeply censured by implication in the following passage:—"His serene highness further orders it to be declared to lieutenant-general, the marquess of Granby, that he is persuaded, that if he had had the good fortune to have had him at the head of the cavalry of the right wing, his presence would have greatly contributed to have made the decision of that day more complete and more brilliant. In short, his serene highness orders, that those of his suite whose behaviour he most admired be named, as the duke of Richmond, Colonel Fitzroy, Captain Ligonier, Colonel Watson, Captain Wilson, aid-de-camp to Major-general Waldegrave, Adjutants General Erstoff, Bulow, Durendole, the Count Tobe and Malerti; his highness having much reason to be satisfied with their conduct. And his serene highness desires and orders the generals of the army, that upon all occasions when orders are brought to them by his aids-de-camp, that they may be obeyed punctually and without delay."

Lord George immediately returned to England; but within three days after his arrival, was ignominiously dismissed from all his employments. His request, however, to be tried by a court-martial was

granted. The court assembled on the 29th of February, 1760; and on the 3d of April following, pronounced the following sentence:—"The court, upon due consideration of the whole matter before them, is of opinion, that Lord George Sackville is guilty of having disobeyed the orders of Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, whom he was by his commission and instructions directed to obey, as commander-in-chief, according to the rules of war: and it is the farther opinion of this court, that the said Lord George Sackville is, and he is hereby adjudged, unfit to serve his majesty in any military capacity whatever. This sentence was confirmed by the king, who, moreover, signified his pleasure that it should be given out in public orders, not only in Britain but in America, and every quarter of the globe where any English troops happened to be, 'that officers being convinced that neither high birth, nor great employments, could shelter offences of such a nature; and that, seeing they were subject to censures much worse than death, to a man who had a sense of honour, they might avoid the fatal consequences arising from disobedience of orders.' To complete the disgrace, his majesty in council called for the council-book, and ordered the name of Lord George Sackville to be struck out of the list of privy-counsellors."

It is generally allowed now, that Lord George met with a hard measure of justice at the hands of his brother-officers on this occasion. One of the first acts of George III., after his accession to the crown, was to recall Lord George to court.<sup>1</sup> In 1761 he was returned to parliament for Hythe in Kent. In 1770, on his succeeding to the greater part of Lady Elizabeth Germaine's property, he took the name of Germaine in accordance with the terms of his aunt's devise. In 1775 he was appointed secretary of state for the colonies; and in this capacity he strenuously supported the American war, and rendered himself highly unpopular. On the dissolution of the ministration of which he was a minister, he was raised to the peerage by the title of Lord Viscount Sackville. The marquess of Carmarthen opposed his reception into the house, and moved that it was derogatory to the honour of the house, that any person, labouring under the heavy censure of a court-martial, should be recommended by the crown as a proper person to sit in that house. The motion was evaded by the question of adjournment; but Lord George Germaine having actually taken his seat in the house under the title of Lord Viscount Sackville, the marquess of Carmarthen renewed his attack, and urged, "that the house of peers being a court of honour, it behoved them to preserve that honour uncontaminated, and to mark in the most forcible manner their disapprobation of the introduction of a person into that assembly who was stigmatized in the orderly books of every regiment in the service." Lord Abingdon, who seconded the motion, styled the admission of Lord George Germaine to a peerage an insufferable indignity to that house, and an outrageous insult to the public. What, said his lordship, has that person done to merit honours superior to his fellow-citizens? His only claim to promotion was, that he had undone his country by executing the plan of that accursed invisible, though efficient cabinet, from whom as he received his orders, so he had obtained his reward. Lord Sackville,

<sup>1</sup> See *North Britain*, No. 45.

in his own vindication, denied the justice of the sentence passed upon him, and affirmed "that he considered his restoration to the council-board at a very early period of the present reign, as amounting to a virtual repeal of that iniquitous verdict." The duke of Richmond strongly defended the motion, and said "that he himself was present at the battle of Minden, and was summoned on the trial of Lord George Germaine; and had his deposition been called for, he could have proved that the time lost when the noble viscount delayed to advance, under pretence of receiving contradictory orders, was not less than one hour and a half; that the cavalry were a mile and a quarter only from the scene of action; and it was certainly in his lordship's power, therefore, to have rendered the victory, important as it was, far more brilliant and decisive; and he had little reason to complain of the severity of the sentence passed upon him." Lord Southampton also, who, as *aide-de-camp* to Prince Ferdinand on that memorable day, delivered the message of his serene highness to his lordship, vindicated the equity of the sentence. On the division, nevertheless, it was rejected by a majority of ninety-three to twenty-eight voices; but to the inexpressible chagrin of Lord Sackville, a protest was entered on the journals of the house, declaring his promotion to be "an insult on the memory of the late sovereign, and highly derogatory to the dignity of that house."

Sackville was by no means a man of high ability, and appears to have owed his influence with George III. chiefly to the zeal with which he supported that most impolitic of measures, the contest with the American colonies. The charge of cowardice has, we think, never been made good against him; indeed the evidence inclines rather to the other side, and it would be more easy to establish an accusation of rashness against him; but he does not appear to have possessed much military talent. He has been named amongst the supposed authors of *Junius*; but there is little in his known style of composition which favours this supposition. The productions of *Junius* were beautifully polished; but Sackville's style, according to his apologist, *Wraxall*, who describes him as passing little time either at his desk or in his closet, was negligent and unstudied. "I should be proud," said he, on one occasion, to a friend, "to be capable of writing as *Junius* has done; but there are many passages in his letters I should be very sorry to have written."

The following sketches of his lordship's political character appeared in 1777:—"This noble lord's political character lies within a narrow compass, having heard very little of him in 'this line,' (to borrow a favourite expression of his friend *Howe*,) but that he enjoyed a place of no responsibility under the successive administrations of the marquess of Rockingham, Lord Chatham, and the duke of Grafton. About three years since—though unconnected with any particular set of men, and seemingly in opposition to the court—he suddenly emerged out of his political obscurity, and took a very warm, conspicuous, and decided part in parliament, relative to the inquiry into the state and condition of the affairs of the East India company. He was a buttress to the minister on that trying occasion, and helped him to surmount the difficulties thrown in his way with a plausibility and address well suited to his situation, and perfectly correspondent—as the events which have since happened have fully proved—to his future views of ambition and

active life. It was a very favourable, nay, lucky circumstance for the noble lord<sup>2</sup> who took the lead in that business, and who, in the progress of it, found himself powerfully opposed in the cabinet, that he was supported in parliament by three persons supposed to be warm in opposition, namely, the noble lord who is the subject of the present observations, Sir William Meredith, and Mr Cornwall. It gave a complexion to the measure, which nothing but time and a change of situation could develope or make intelligible.

"The era soon approached which was to lay the immediate foundation for bringing his lordship into a much more elevated and consequential point of view than he had hitherto appeared. Towards the close of the session now adverted to, the minister, as a counterbalance to the ravages he had committed on the East India company, gave them leave, by a bill expressly passed for that purpose, to export their teas to North America. This consequently drew the old dispute, subsisting since 1768, relative to the duty laid on that commodity, into question. What happened on that occasion is too recent in every person's memory to require a recapitulation. The tea, in whatever port it arrived, was either sent back unopened, or was destroyed. The people of Boston led the way; and as the most violent and outrageous, incurred the resentment of the court and administration. Unwilling, however, to push matters to extremity, or fearful, more probably, to raise a storm in which they might be shipwrecked, the session of 1774 commenced, and was held for some weeks without any particular notice being taken of the state of affairs in America. A spirit of temporizing and procrastination, such as had for the four preceding years prevailed, seemed still to pervade the king's servants. A gentleman,<sup>3</sup> however, strong in opposition, broke this ministerial repose. He roused the ministers from those deceitful, unwholesome slumbers, in which they had so long remained, so much to their own disgrace, and the dishonour of the nation. He gave notice that on a particular day he would move for a committee of the whole house to inquire into the American affairs. On that day the minister's mouth was opened; he found himself pressed, and made an act of duty what merely proceeded from necessity. It was not till the 9th of March, 1774, that Lord North moved for a committee; nor was it till that day, that, for the first time, Lord George Germaine openly declared his sentiments upon the supremacy of the British legislature over all and every of the dominions and dependencies of the British crown. The first fruit of the resolutions come to in the committee, and which were expressly declarative of that right in the most unlimited and unconditional terms, was the Boston port bill. His lordship supported and defended this bill throughout; but as he only looked upon it to be a mere law of punishment, no further effectual than as it might be supposed to operate on the inhabitants, he suggested a bill of protection to those who were to be employed in carrying the provisions of the act into execution. This was the rise of the bill for the trial of persons charged with offences in North America, in any other province, or for bringing them over to England. The law had a double view. It was designed to protect the military, when called out to the aid of the civil power, from the

<sup>2</sup> Lord North.

<sup>3</sup> Colonel Jennings.

prejudiced verdict of a provincial jury, as well as to bring offenders in that country to justice, either in some other colony or in Great Britain. The outline of this bill was recommended by his lordship. It was adopted with gratitude, and pursued with steadiness by the minister, till it received the royal assent. This, and the other which followed it—that for altering the charter of Massachusetts bay—were both of his lordship's hand, at least the former; and it is now only in the womb of time to decide, whether they were the wisest or the most pernicious that ever received the sanction of a British parliament.

“ This nobleman's political character presents little more worthy of public notice, till his entrance into office last winter, except his voting with the minister upon a declared principle that the British parliament have a clear, decisive, constitutional right to bind the American colonies in all cases whatsoever; and in pursuance of that right, to accept of no concessional compromise,—to accede to no conciliatory proposition, short of unconditional submission. As his lordship has acted openly, so he has adhered to his declarations with all possible steadiness. He has given a tone of vigour in deliberation, and alacrity in execution, unknown in the cabinet or in office before his appointment; and be the event of the present momentous struggle what it may, truth authorizes us to acknowledge, that as far as people at a distance may with confidence pronounce, he is one of the few who can be selected from any party, that has made his official conduct exactly correspond with his parliamentary declarations, hitherto at least, without any mixture of tergiversation or alloy.

“ His lordship's abilities as a speaker are universally confessed. If he be not so diffusive or well-informed as Mr Burke, nor so subtle, persuasive, or confident as Mr Thurlow, he has very singular advantages over either of them. He always confines himself to the subject of debate. He never fails to keep some point on which the weight of it turns steadily in view. He approaches with a moderate but steady step; and is generally sure to carry home conviction to the understandings as well as to the hearts of his hearers. His manner is peculiar; his style is nervous and manly; his language elegance itself; and his observations pointed, sententious, and convincing. He never affects to say shining or witty things, nor lays the least foundation for regret in his auditors, but when he sits down. On the other hand, there is a certain failure in his voice and labour in his delivery that is not very pleasing; his cadences are uniform, and far from being harmonious. His lordship does not much abound in that kind of matter which may be supposed even to lie directly in his way; he deals mostly in propositions controverted by his antagonists, and argues from them as principles already proved or assented to. His speeches are rather confirmative than persuasive; better calculated to keep his friends with him, than to bring proselytes over to his opinions. In short, his lordship is deficient in illustration, variety, and detail; or, if within his reach, neglects to use them; by which means the judicious and correct arrangement of his matter is hardly sufficient to compensate for his seeming obscurity and sterility of invention.”



## Jonas Hanway.

BORN A. D. 1712.—DIED A. D. 1786.

JONAS HANWAY was born at Portsmouth, on the 12th of August, 1712. His father, Mr Thomas Hanway, was for some years store-keeper in the dockyard at Portsmouth. He was deprived of his life by an accident, and left his widow with four children. Young Jonas was put to school by his mother in London, where he learned writing and accounts, and made some proficiency in Latin. At the age of seventeen he went over to Lisbon, where he arrived in June, 1729, and was bound apprentice to a merchant in that city.

His early life was marked with that discreet attention to business, and love of neatness and regularity, which distinguished his future character. On the expiration of his apprenticeship, he entered into business at Lisbon as a merchant or factor; but did not remain there long before he returned to London. In February, 1748, he accepted a partnership in the house of Mr Dingley, a merchant at Petersburg; and embarking on the river Thames in the April following, he arrived at Petersburg the 10th of June. There he first became acquainted with the Caspian trade, then in its infancy, and formed an ardent desire to see Persia, a country so renowned for extraordinary events in ancient and modern times. This he was enabled to do in consequence of his being appointed agent to the British factory at Petersburg, by whom he was sent to Persia, with the view of opening a trade through Russia into Persia. The limits of this memoir will not permit us to give an account of his adventures in Persia, of which a copious relation is given in his travels, published by himself. From Persia he returned to Russia, and passed through Germany and Holland, and arrived in England in October, 1750, after an absence of nearly eight years. The rest of his life, with the exception of two short intervals, was passed in England, as a private gentleman, employing his time, and the very moderate fortune of which he was possessed, in a continued course of benevolent actions, pursued with extraordinary and unremitting assiduity.

In 1753, he published, in four volumes 4to, 'An Historical Account of the British Trade over the Caspian Sea, with a Journal of Travels from England through Russia into Persia, and back through Russia, Germany, and Holland. To which are added, the Revolutions of Persia during the present century; with the particular history of the great Usurper, Nadir Kouli.' This work was extremely well-received by the public, and passed through four editions.

Mr Hanway was the original proposer of the Marine society, and by the most judicious and unceasing attention to its interest, and the management of its finances, deserved the title of its guardian. In 1757, he published a 'Journey from Portsmouth to Kingston,' in which he animadverted on what he considered the pernicious custom of tea-drinking amongst the lower classes of the people. This publication involved him in a short controversy with Dr Johnson. In 1758, he became governor of the Foundling hospital, and was very active and

useful in the formation of that institution. He was also extremely solicitous to promote schemes for the preservation of infant parish poor; and it was by his exertions, and at his expense, that the act 7<sup>o</sup> Geo. III. c. 39. was procured. In 1762, he published 'Eight Letters to the duke of Newcastle' on the custom of giving vails to servants. By his efforts, and that of others, this practice was at length generally discontinued.

Mr Hanway was a great promoter of the Magdalen hospital; he also set on foot the Maritime school; and engaged in various other benevolent designs. Indeed, the many useful and public-spirited plans in which he engaged for the welfare of his fellow-creatures, had now rendered his character most respectably popular. His disinterestedness, and the sincerity of his intentions, were conspicuous to all. His name appeared to every proposal for the benefit of mankind, and brought with it more than his own benefaction, for people were assured by the appearance of his name, that their bounty would be at least faithfully and carefully expended.

Five citizens of London waited on Lord Bute, the then minister, in a body, and in their own names, and the names of their fellow-citizens, requested that some notice might be taken of him. In obedience to this request, on the 17th of July, 1762, he was appointed, by patent, one of the commissioners for victualling the navy. With the increase of income, which this appointment produced, he thought he might extend his acquaintance, and took a house in Red Lion square, the principal rooms of which he furnished, and decorated with paintings and emblematical devices in a style peculiar to himself. "I found," he was used to say, when speaking of these ornaments, "that my countrymen and women were not *au fait* in the art of conversation, and that instead of recurring to their cards, when the discourse began to flag, the minutes between the time of assembling, and the placing the card-tables, are spent in an irksome suspense; for conversation has no charms when the mind is not engaged in it. To relieve this vacuum in social intercourse, and prevent cards from engrossing the whole of my visitors' minds, I have presented them with objects the most attractive that I could imagine, and such as cannot easily be examined without exciting amusing and instructive discourse—and when that fails, there are the cards."

Mr Hanway continued till towards the close of his life to employ his time in official business, and in supporting and promoting the charitable institutions which he had founded or interested himself in; but in the summer of 1786, his health declined so visibly, that he thought it necessary to take relaxation. He had long felt the approach of a disorder in the bladder which terminated in strangury, which, on the 5th of September, 1786, put a period to a life spent almost entirely in the service of his fellow-creatures.

It may be truly said of this good man, that nothing in his life became him better than his dying. During the progress of a tedious, and sometimes painful illness, he never once expressed the least impatience; but saw the approach of his dissolution without regret. When he grew so weak as to be confined to his bed, he requested his physicians to speak frankly and without reserve of his disorder; and when convinced he could not recover, he sent and paid all his tradesmen, took

leave of his most intimate friends, dictated some letters to absent acquaintances, had the sacrament administered to him, and discoursed with the most cheerful composure of his affairs.

The following character of this excellent man has been given by his biographer, Mr Pugh, who resided in his house many years, and had the best means of obtaining information respecting him: "Mr Hanway in his person was of the middle size, of a thin spare habit, but well-shaped; his limbs were fashioned with the nicest symmetry. In the latter years of his life he stooped very much, and when he walked, found it conduce to his ease to let his head incline to one side. When he went first to Russia at the age of thirty, his face was full and comely, and his person altogether such as obtained for him the appellation of the 'handsome Englishman.' His features were small, but without the insignificance which commonly attends small features. His countenance was interesting, sensible, and calculated to inspire reverence. His blue eyes never had been brilliant; but they expressed the utmost humanity and benevolence; and when he spoke, the animation of his countenance and the tone of his voice were such as seemed to carry conviction with them to the mind of a stranger. His mind was the most active that it is possible to conceive, always on the wing, and never appearing to be weary. To sit still and endeavour to give rest to the thought was a luxury to which he was a perfect stranger: he dreaded nothing so much as inactivity, and that modern disorder which the French—who feel it not so much as ourselves—distinguish by the name of *ennui*. In his natural disposition he was cheerful but serene. He enjoyed his own joke, and applauded the wit of another; but never descended from a certain dignity which he thought indispensably necessary. His experience furnished him with some anecdote or adventure, suitable to every turn the discourse could take, and he was always willing to communicate it. If the mirth degenerated into boisterous laughter, he took his leave: 'My companions,' he would say, 'were too merry to be happy, or to let me be happy, so I left them.' He spoke better in public than was to be expected of one who wrote so much, and pointed to his subject."

### Lord Viscount Keppel.

BORN A. D. 1725.—DIED A. D. 1786.

THIS nobleman was the second son of William, second earl of Albemarle, and the Lady Anne Lenox, daughter of Charles Lenox, first duke of Richmond. He was born on the 2d of April, 1725, and was sent at a very early age to sea, under Commodore Anson, when that officer was ordered to the South seas. Mr Keppel was, on the capture of the *Esmeralda* galleon, promoted to the rank of lieutenant; and almost immediately after his return to England, in the month of September, 1744, was made commander of a sloop of war. In the month of December following he was advanced to be captain of the *Sapphire* frigate. He retained this command two years; and, being constantly employed as a cruiser, his diligence and activity were rewarded with a considerable number of important prizes. In 1746 he became captain

of the Maidstone, of fifty guns, in which vessel he had the misfortune to be wrecked off the coast of France, in consequence of running too near the shore in pursuit of a French privateer. He was next appointed to the Anson, of sixty-four guns; and, after having been employed for some time in the channel, was despatched, in 1749, to the Mediterranean, where, about the end of the year 1751, he entered into a treaty of peace with the states of Algiers, Tripoli, and Tunis. At an audience which he had obtained of the dey of Algiers, for the purpose of demanding the restoration of some vessels which had been taken by the pirates, his deportment was so spirited, that the dey exclaimed, "I wonder at the English king's insolence, in sending me such a foolish, beardless boy!" "Had my master," replied Keppel, "supposed wisdom to be measured by the length of the beard, he would have sent you a he-goat." This answer so enraged the dey, that he ordered his mutes to attend with the bow-string. Keppel, however, displayed no symptom of alarm, but coolly observed—pointing through a window to the English ships riding at anchor in the bay, as he spoke—"If it be your pleasure to put me to death, there are Englishmen enough in that fleet to make me a glorious funeral pile!" The dey, it is added, felt the truth of this remark, and consented to grant the restitution which Keppel had demanded. In 1754 he hoisted his broad pendant on board the Centurion, as commanding officer of the ships of war sent to North America for the purpose of protecting a fleet of transports, having on board General Braddock with a considerable body of regular troops. That unfortunate general was loud in his praises of Mr Keppel's conduct, and most gratefully acknowledged the assistance he received from him on all occasions when his aid was necessary.

After the defeat of Braddock the commodore returned to Europe, and was appointed to the Swiftsure, from which ship he removed into the Torbay. In the ship last-mentioned he continued five years, always actively employed, but without having any opportunity of particularly distinguishing himself, till the year 1758, when he was appointed commander-in-chief of the expedition sent against the French settlement at Goree on the coast of Africa. On his return from this service, in the ensuing spring, he struck his broad pendant, and continued to serve for some time in the fleet commanded by Sir Edward Hawke. In the month of February he was appointed colonel of the Plymouth division of marines. On the 22d of October, 1762, he was promoted to the rank of rear-admiral of the blue squadron. In the month of October, 1770, he was appointed to command a squadron ordered to be fitted out with the utmost expedition, in consequence of an apprehended rupture with Spain. The dispute was, however, amicably adjusted, and the armament ordered to be dismantled without having ever put to sea.

At the commencement of the year 1778, it being foreseen that a rupture with France was become inevitable, Mr Keppel was promoted to be admiral of the blue squadron, and was appointed commander-in-chief of the fleet intended, in the actual event of a war, for home or channel service. Having hoisted his flag, in the month of March, on board the Prince George, of ninety guns, from which he afterwards removed it on board the Victory, he sailed from St Helen's on the 8th of June, at the head of a fleet consisting of twenty-one ships of two and

three decks, three frigates, and as many smaller vessels. On the 10th of July they discovered the fleet of the enemy. Several days were spent, according to the practice of French naval tactics at that time, in manœuvring; but at length the whole of their fleet was brought to a general action on the 27th of July. This encounter, when compared with others bearing the same denomination, namely, that of a general action between two powerful fleets, certainly deserved no more dignified appellation than that of an indecisive skirmish. Mr Keppel returned to port, for the purpose of refitting those ships of the fleet which had received any material damage, and sailed from Plymouth on the 23d of August to join the divisions of Sir Robert Harland and Sir Hugh Palliser, which had put to sea on the preceding day. Nothing, however, sufficiently material to merit notice took place during the remainder of the naval campaign, which was finally closed by the return of Mr Keppel on the 28th of October. The dissatisfaction occasioned by the indecisive action in the month of July, though smothered for a considerable time, now began to manifest itself. The friends of Keppel cast the whole blame of the miscarriage on Sir Hugh Palliser, and it could not be expected that the latter, with his party, would endure the obloquy patiently. Invective begot recrimination, and the houses of parliament rang with the clamours of the different parties. Sir Hugh Palliser at length preferred a specific charge against Mr Keppel at the admiralty board, and demanded a court-martial, which, notwithstanding moderate men unanimously conceived it improper and impolitic, should be instituted after so long an interval, and a memorial, signed by several of those who had been, and were then considered among the leading and most distinguished characters in the British navy, was presented to his majesty, beseeching him to stop all further proceedings, was, nevertheless, commanded to be prosecuted in the regular manner. An order was accordingly issued to Sir Thomas Pye, admiral of the white, to hold a court-martial for the trial of Mr Keppel, on the 7th of January: it consequently met on that day on board the *Britannia*. Palliser charged Keppel with having neglected to arrange his ships in order of battle, so that a general engagement could not have been brought on; with having neglected to tack and double upon the French, with the van and centre divisions of the English fleet, after these had passed the enemy's rear; thus leaving the vice-admiral of the blue exposed to be cut off; with having given an opportunity to the enemy to rally unmolested, and stand after the British fleet,—thus giving the French admiral a pretence to claim the victory; and, lastly, with having, on the morning of the 28th of July, instead of pursuing the enemy, led the British fleet in an opposite direction. After going through the necessary forms of swearing in the members, it adjourned to the governor's house: a particular act of parliament having, for the accommodation of Mr Keppel, who was extremely indisposed, been passed for the purpose of authorizing a measure till then unprecedented. It is not within our limits to give even an abridged detail of the trial, which continued, through several short intervening adjournments, till the 11th of February: suffice it that we briefly state Mr Keppel was acquitted. The admiral, however, ceased to be employed,—a circumstance rather naturally to be expected than wondered at, considering not only the extraordinary political schism which his case and conduct had created, but

also the very severe animadversions made by his friends on the behaviour of ministers towards him.

The overthrow of the ministry in March, 1782, served to introduce Mr Keppel to his country once more in a public character. He was constituted first commissioner of the admiralty, and sworn in one of the members of the privy council,—an advancement attended immediately afterwards by professional promotion, and his exaltation to the rank of Viscount Keppel, of Elvedon, in the county of Suffolk. His station of first commissioner of the admiralty he quitted for a few weeks, on the 28th of January, 1783, but resumed it again on the 8th of April ensuing; the celebrated coalition then taking place between a select number of his lordship's party, and several of the leading persons of the former ex-ministry, who had, in the preceding year, been ranked among the most violent of his enemies. He retained his high station only till the 30th of December following, when a political convulsion, equal in extent to that which first introduced him into it, caused him finally to quit this public character of first minister of marine. He survived but a very few years, dying on the 2d of October, 1786, having been long afflicted with the gout and other grievous bodily infirmities, in the sixty-third year of his age.

### **Sir William Draper.**

BORN A. D. 1721.—DIED A. D. 1787.

THIS officer, who has been dragged into such unfortunate notoriety by the remorseless invective of Junius, was a native of Bristol, and educated in that city. He took the degree of B. A. at Cambridge, in 1744. In 1749 he entered the army, and spent some years in the East Indies. On his return to England, with the rank of colonel, he was appointed governor of Yarmouth. In 1761 he laid a plan before government for wresting the Philippine islands from Spain. Ministers approved of the scheme, and Draper, with the rank of brigadier-general, was intrusted with its execution, in which charge he perfectly succeeded. Manilla was carried by assault, and the captors agreed to accept bills on Madrid for 4,000,000 of dollars, in lieu of plunder. The court of Madrid, however, refused to honour the Manilla drafts, and Draper, then a member of the house of commons, brought the case before the house. His silence, however, was obtained by a red ribbon and the colonelcy of the 16th regiment of foot.

Meanwhile the marquess of Granby had been attacked by Junius; and Draper, in attempting to shield his lordship, drew down upon himself the invective of the intrepid assailant of all political abuses. Draper had first been loud in his remonstrances on the subject of the Manilla ransom: "By what accident did it happen," inquires Junius, "that in the midst of all this bustle, and all these clamours for justice to your injured troops, the name of the Manilla ransom was buried in a profound, and, since that time, an uninterrupted silence? Did the ministers suggest any motive to you strong enough to tempt a man of honour to desert and betray the cause of his fellow-soldiers? Was it that blushing ribbon which is now the perpetual ornament of your person?"

Or, was it that regiment which you afterwards—a thing unprecedented among soldiers—sold to Colonel Gisborne? Or, was it that government the full pay of which you are contented to hold with the half-pay of an Irish colonel?"

In reply to these questions, Draper said that he had very recently memorialized Lord Shelburne anew on the subject of the Manilla ransom, but that he found ministers disposed to overlook the conduct of the Spanish government in their anxiety to establish a peace. As to the red ribbon and colonelcy, he said: "His majesty was pleased to give me my government for my services at Madras. I had my first regiment in 1757. Upon my return from Manilla, his majesty, by Lord Egremont, informed me that I should have the first vacant red ribbon, as a reward for my services in an enterprise which I had planned and executed. The duke of Bedford and Mr Grenville confirmed those assurances many months before the Spaniards had protested the ransom-bills. To accommodate Lord Clive, then going upon a most important service to Bengal, I waived my claim to the vacancy which then happened. As there was no other until the duke of Grafton and Lord Rockingham were joint-ministers, I was then honoured with the order; and it is, surely, no small honour to me that in such a succession of ministers, they were all pleased to think that I had deserved it: in my favour they were all united. Upon the reduction of the 79th regiment, which had served so gloriously in the East Indies, his majesty, unsolicited by me, gave me the 16th of foot as an equivalent. My motives for retiring afterwards are foreign to the purpose; let it suffice that his majesty was pleased to approve of them. They are such as no man can think indecent, who knows the shocks that repeated vicissitudes of heat and cold, of dangerous and sickly climates, will give to the best constitution, in a pretty long course of service. I resigned my regiment to Colonel Gisborne, a very good officer, for his half-pay, £200 Irish annuities; so that, according to Junius, I have been bribed to say nothing more of the Manilla ransom, and to sacrifice those brave men, by the strange avarice of accepting £380 per annum, and giving up £800!"

Some more correspondence followed with his veiled antagonist, in which he came off, on the whole, with less dishonour than might at first have been anticipated. In 1779 he was appointed lieutenant-governor of Minorca; and on the surrender of that place, in 1782, he exhibited a series of charges against his superior in command, General Murray. He failed in establishing several of them, and was ordered to make an apology.

He died at Bath in 1787.

### John Shebbeare.

BORN A. D. 1709.—DIED A. D. 1788.

THIS once celebrated political writer was born at Bideford in Devonshire, in the year 1709. His father, an attorney and corn-factor, had four children, of whom the subject of this notice was the eldest. John was educated at a school in Bristol, where he gave indications of that

peculiar genius which he was afterwards to display on a wider theatre: his memory was highly tenacious, his wit ready, but his temper sour, ungrateful, and malicious to an extraordinary degree. In his fifteenth year he was apprenticed to a surgeon, and, after finishing his professional education, he appears to have practised for some little time, probably without success, in his native town. In 1736 he entered into partnership with a chemist in Bristol; but this scheme also seems to have failed. In the year 1752 he was in Paris, where he represents himself to have obtained his medical diploma.

Until this time he appears to have lived in obscurity; but at an age when vigorous exertion usually subsides, he seems to have resolved to place himself in a conspicuous situation whatever hazard might attend it, and commenced a public writer with a degree of celerity, coarseness, and virulence, which it would be difficult to find a parallel for even in our own intemperate times. In the year 1754 he began his career with 'The Marriage Act,' a political novel, in which he treated the legislature with such freedom that it occasioned his being taken into custody, whence, however, he was soon released. The productions of his pen most celebrated were a series of 'Letters to the People of England,' which were written in a style vigorous and energetic, though slovenly and careless, well-calculated to make an impression on common readers; and were accordingly read with avidity and circulated with diligence. They had a considerable effect<sup>1</sup> on the minds of the people, and galled the ministry, who seem to have been at first too eager to punish the author. On the publication of the third letter, warrants, dated 4th and 8th of March, 1756, were issued by Lord Holderness to take up both Scott, the publisher, and the author. This prosecution however seems to have been dropped, and the culprit proceeded for some time unmolested, "having declared," says one of his answerers, "that he would write himself into a post or into the pillory, in the last of which he at length succeeded." On the 12th of January, 1758, a general warrant was signed by Lord Holderness, to apprehend the author, printer, and publishers of a wicked, audacious, and treasonable libel, entitled 'A Sixth Letter to the People of England, on the progress of national ruin; in which is shown that the present grandeur of France and calamities of this nation are owing to the influence of Hanover on the councils of England.'<sup>2</sup> At this juncture government seems to have been effectually roused; for having received information that a seventh letter was printing, by virtue of another warrant, dated January 23d, all the copies were seized and entirely suppressed. In Easter term an

<sup>1</sup> "I may aver with the strictest veracity, that the Letters which were written to the People of England, contributed not a little towards creating the popularity, and thereby to the elevation of Lord Chatham to the seat of prime minister." Again, "It is Lord Chatham only of whom I have reason to complain; who having profited by my writings, and having publicly declared, that he avowed the truth of all that they contained; in return for my endeavours to serve him, after he was mounted above the throne, and possessed of absolute power, not only permitted me to be punished for writing words less offensive than he had repeatedly spoken in the house of commons, but even ill-treated Sir John Philips who applied to him in my favour."—*Answer to Queries*, pp. 36, 37.

<sup>2</sup> The motto to this pamphlet was from Revelation, chap. vi. 8. "And I looked, and behold a pale horse: and his name that sat on him was Death, and Hell followed with him." A white horse is part of the Hanover arms.



information was filed against him by Mr Pratt, then attorney-general, in which it is worthy of remark that the crown-officer, in his application to the court, in express terms admitted the jury's right to determine both the law and the fact in matters of libel. "What I urge," says the advocate, "to the court, is only to show there is reasonable ground for considering this publication as a libel, and for putting it in a way of trial, and therefore it is I pray to have the rule made absolute; for I admit, and your lordship well knows, that the jury in matter of libel are judges of the law as well as the fact, and have an undoubted right to consider whether, upon the whole, the pamphlet in question be, or be not, a false, malicious, and scandalous libel." On the 17th of June, the information was tried, when our author was found guilty; and on the 28th November, he received sentence, by which he was fined five pounds, and ordered to stand in the pillory, at Charing cross, to be confined three years, and give security for his good behaviour for seven years, himself in £500 and two others in £250 each. On the day appointed, that part of the sentence which doomed him to the pillory was put in execution, amidst a prodigious concourse of people assembled on the occasion. The under-sheriff, at that time, happened to be a person who had sometimes been assisted by the doctor in writing the 'Monitor,' a paper of the same tendency with the writings of the culprit. The conduct of this officer became the subject of animadversion in the court of king's bench. It was proved, "that the defendant only stood upon the platform of the pillory, unconfined and at his ease, attended by a servant in livery (which servant and livery were hired for the occasion only) holding an umbrella over his head all the time; but his head, hands, neck, and arms, were not at all confined, or put into the holes of the pillory; only that he sometimes put his hands upon the holes of the pillory in order to rest himself." For this neglect of duty the under-sheriff was fined £50, and suffered two months' imprisonment.

Some time before he was tried for the obnoxious publication already mentioned, the duchess of Queensbury, as heir of Lord Clarendon, obtained an injunction in the court of chancery to stop the publication of the continuation of that nobleman's history, a copy of which had got into the hands of Francis Gwyn, Esq. between whom and the doctor there had been an agreement to publish it and divide the profits. The care and expenses attending the ushering this work into the world were, to be wholly Dr Shebbeare's, who performed his part of the agreement, and caused it to be handsomely printed in quarto, with a tory preface containing frequent allusions to recent events and living characters.

While he was confined in the king's bench, he solicited subscriptions for the first volume of a 'History of England,' from the Revolution to the then present time. But, at the persuasion of his friends, he was induced to alter his design, and receipts were issued for a first volume of the 'History of England, and of the Constitution thereof from its

\* See Burrow's Reports, p. 792. Dr Shebbeare, a very short time before his death, mentioned that the servant in livery was an Irish chairman employed for the occasion. Teague received a guinea for his hire. The next day, however, he called upon the doctor, and appearing dissatisfied with his reward, said he hoped his honour would give him something more; "for only consider, Sir," added he, in order to put his requisition in the strongest light possible, "only consider the disgrace of the thing." The doctor sent the man away contented.

origin.' That volume he wrote, and had transcribed. "But as it was impracticable," to use his own words, "whilst I was in confinement, to procure that variety of books, or to apply to manuscript authorities for all that was requisite to the completing this first volume, I found on being released from my imprisonment, and on application to the former only, that the volume which I had written, was incorrect, insufficient, and erroneous, in too many particulars to admit of its being published without injustice to my subscribers and reprehensions on myself. Into this displeasing situation I had been misled by relying on the authorities of modern historians, who pretend to cite the authors from whence their materials are taken, many of whom appear never to have seen them, but implicitly to have copied one another, and all of them manifestly defective; not only in the authorities they should have sought, but in their omissions and misrepresentations of those whom they had consulted: more especially respecting those parts of the old German codes on which our constitution is erected, and without which it cannot be properly explained or understood. Such being the real situation of things, I perceived that more time than I could expect to live would be necessarily required for so extensive a work as the whole history I had proposed; and that a single volume, or even a few volumes of an history incomplete, would by no means answer either the intention of my subscribers, or my own: I determined, therefore, to change my plan, and to include in one volume that which might require no others to complete this new design." This plan he at times employed himself in filling up. On being rudely attacked for not performing his promise with his subscribers, he, in 1774, thus writes: "From the inevitable obligations, not only of supporting my own family, but those also whom as son and brother it was my duty to sustain for forty years,—and which, respecting the claims of the latter, still continues,—it will be easily discerned that many an avocation must have proceeded from these circumstances, as well as from a sense of gratitude to his majesty, in defence of whose government I have thought it my duty occasionally to exert my best abilities." He adds, however, that he did not intend to die until what he had proposed was finished,—a promise which the event showed he was unable to perform.

He was detained in prison during the whole time of the sentence, and with some degree of rigour; for when his life was in danger, from an ill state of health, and he applied to the court of king's bench for permission to be carried into the rules a few hours in a day, though Lord Mansfield acceded to the petition, yet the prayer of it was denied and defeated by Judge Foster. At the expiration of the time of his sentence, a new reign had commenced, and shortly afterwards, during the administration of Grenville, a pension was granted him by the crown. From this period we find Dr Shebbeare a uniform defender of the measures of government. Dr Smollett introduced him, under the name of Ferret, in the novel of Sir Launcelot Greaves, and Hogarth made him one of the group in his third election print. The author of the 'Heroic Epistle' published a poem addressed to him under the title of an Epistle, of which the following lines may be taken as a specimen:

Wretch! that from Slander's filth art ever gleaming  
Spite without spirit, malice without meaning;

The same abusive, base, abandon'd thing,  
 When pilloried, or pension'd by a king;  
 Old as thou art, methinks 'twere sage advice  
 That North should call thee off from hunting Price.  
 Some younger blood-hound of his bawling pack  
 Might sorer gall his presbyterian back.  
 Thy toothless jaws should free thee from the fight;  
 Thou canst but mumble when thou mean'st to bite.  
 Say, then, to give a requiem to thy toils,  
 What if my muse array'd her in thy spoils?  
 And took the field for thee, through pure good-nature;  
 Courts praised by thee, are cursed beyond her satire.

Scarcely a periodical now appeared in which there was not some abuse of him, which he seems to have had the good sense generally to neglect. In the year 1774, however, he departed from his general practice, and defended himself from some attacks at that time made upon him.

Early in life he appears to have written a comedy, which in 1766 he made an effort to get represented at Covent-Garden. In 1768 he wrote the review of books in the 'Political Register' for three months; he was also often engaged to write for particular persons, with whom he usually quarrelled when he came to be paid. His pen seems to have been constantly employed, and he wrote with great rapidity. Though pensioned by government, he can scarce be said to have renounced his opinions; for in the pamphlet last mentioned, his abuse of the Revolution is as gross as that for which he suffered the pillory. His violence often defeated his own purpose; those who agreed in party with him revolted from the virulence with which he treated his adversaries. It is said that his disposition was better than his writings indicate; and indeed the manner in which he speaks of his connections exhibits traits of a liberal and benevolent mind. His death, which happened in August, 1788, seems to have been sudden.

The following is a list of Shebbeare's principal works, in addition to those already mentioned: 'A new Analysis of the Bristol Water, together with the Cause of the Diabetes and Hectic; and their Cure, as it results from those Waters, experimentally considered. By John Shebbeare, Chymist.' 8vo. 1740. 'The Practice of Physic. Founded on Principles in Physiology and Pathology, hitherto unapplied in physical Enquiries.' 2 vols. 8vo. 1755. 'Letters on the English Nation, by Battista Angeloni, a Jesuit, who resided many years in London. Translated from the original Italian.' 2 vols. 8vo. 1755. 'Lydia, or Filial Piety. A Novel.' 4 vols. 12mo. 1755. Since reprinted in 2 vols. 12mo. 1769. 'Reasons humbly offered to prove, that the Letters at the end of the French Memorial of Justification is a French forgery, and falsely ascribed to his R—l H—ss.' 8vo. 1756. 'An Answer to a pamphlet, called "The Conduct of the Ministry impartially examined." In which it is proved that neither imbecility nor ignorance in the M—r have been the causes of the present unhappy situation of this nation.' 8vo. 1756. 'An Answer to a Letter to a late Noble Commander of the British Forces. In which the Candour is proved to be affected, the Facts untrue, the Arguments delusive, and the Design iniquitous.' 8vo. 1759. 'Colonel Fitzroy's Letter considered. In a letter to the Right Honourable the Earl of —.' 8vo.

1759. These two pamphlets are ascribed to Dr Shebbeare, on the authority of the writer whom they answer, supposed to be Owen Ruffhead, Esq., who says in the Postscript to 'Further Animadversions on the Conduct of a late Noble Commander, &c.' 8vo. 1759. "I have had the mortification to be informed, that I have stooped to reply to that very ready and abusive writer, who now lies under confinement for the most daring and scandalous of all libels; and who was an apologist for the late unhappy admiral (Byng), to whose ruin perhaps he contributed not a little, by irritating the public against the unfortunate delinquent by his lame vindications and scurrilous invectives." 'A Seventh Letter to the People of England. A Defence of the Prerogative Royal, as it was exerted in his Majesty's Proclamation for the prohibiting the Exportation of Corn; in which it is proved that this Authority ever has been, is, and must be, essential to the Constitution, and inseparable from the Rights and Liberties of the Subject.' 8vo. 1767. 'An Answer to the printed Speech of Edmund Burke, Esq. spoken in the House of Commons, April 19, 1774. In which his knowledge in polity, legislature, human-kind, history, commerce, and finance, is candidly examined; his arguments are fairly refuted; the conduct of Administration is fully defended; and his oratoric talents are clearly exposed to view.' 8vo. 1775. 'An Essay on the Origin, Progress, and Establishment of National Society; in which the principles of Government, the definitions of physical, moral, civil, and religious Liberty contained in Dr Price's Observations, &c. are fairly examined, and fully refuted; together with a justification of the Legislature in reducing America to obedience by force. To which is added, an Appendix on the Excellent and Admirable, in Mr Burke's second printed Speech of the 22d of March, 1775.' 8vo. 1776.—He wrote frequently in the 'Public Advertiser,' and was the author of several numbers of the 'Monitor,' one or two papers of the 'Contest,' several essays in a daily paper called 'The Citizen,' besides many other fugitive pieces.

### Fletcher Norton, Lord Grantley.

BORN A. D. 1716.—DIED A. D. 1789.

FLETCHER, the son of Thomas Norton of Grantley, in Yorkshire, was born on the 23d of January, 1716. He studied law, and acquired considerable reputation at the bar. In 1761 he was appointed solicitor-general, and also received the honour of knighthood. In 1763 he became attorney-general, but was removed from office in 1765. In 1769 he was constituted chief-justice in Eyre, south of the Trent.

On the death of Sir John Cust, speaker of the house of commons, in January, 1770, soon after the appointment of Lord North, the premier proposed Sir Fletcher Norton as the new speaker. Lord Cavendish proposed the honourable Thomas Townshend. Burke and other members of the opposition supported Townshend; but, on a division, Sir Fletcher carried his election by a majority of 237 to 121. He retained possession of the chair ten years.

On the 7th of May, 1777, when the sum of £618,000 was voted for the discharge of his majesty's debts a second time, Sir Fletcher Nor-

ton, on presenting the bill for the royal assent, addressed himself to the throne in the following memorable language :—" Your majesty's faithful commons have granted a great sum to discharge the debt of the civil list ; and considering whatever enables your majesty to support with grandeur, honour, and dignity, the crown of Great Britain, in its true lustre, will reflect honour on the nation, they have given most liberally, even in these times of great danger and difficulty, taxed almost beyond our ability to bear: and they have now granted to your majesty an income far exceeding your majesty's highest wants, hoping that what they have given cheerfully, your majesty will spend wisely." The king, it has been said, did not feel offended at the bold truths and strong language in which he was addressed. A gentleman who was present says, " I narrowly watched the royal eye when this speech was delivered; and declare with pleasure, I did not perceive one symptom of displeasure deranging the mild serenity and dignified softness of the Brunswick countenance." This is twaddle. The king was mortified, and deeply mortified at the well-merited rebuke he had received at the hands of the speaker, and the ministry endeavoured to gratify their royal master by moving a vote of censure against Sir Fletcher. They signally failed, however; for a motion was carried in opposition to the ministry to the effect that the speaker, in his address to the king, " did express with just and proper energy the zeal of this house for the support of the honour and dignity of the crown, in circumstances of great public charge." The thanks of the house were also given to him.

On the assembling of the next parliament, Lord George Germaine proposed that Charles Wolfran Cornwall, Esq. should take the chair. He supported his motion by alleging that the fatigues of the preceding sessions must have impaired the constitution of the late speaker, and that the house was bound, in consideration of his long, faithful services, to relieve him from the toils of office. Mr Dunning opposed the motion. He said that the late speaker was in the house, and to all appearance as fit for his duties as ever. He had expected, when the failing health of Sir Fletcher was mentioned as a reason for the motion before the house, that it would have been stated that Sir Fletcher had himself applied for leave to resign on this ground. It appeared a singular thing to him, he said, to confess, as the proposer and seconder had done, that the late speaker was the properest of all persons to fill the chair, and to move, in the same breath, that another be placed in it. An animated debate followed. Mr Thomas Townshend followed in the same strain with Dunning, and observed that the true though unavowed reason of the opposition to Sir Fletcher was his having made a speech on a memorable occasion which did him the highest honour,—a speech which proved his impartiality as speaker, his zeal for his country, and his feeling for the national distresses. Sir Fletcher himself in his speech declared that his mind was made up not to go into the chair on any consideration; but that he saw through the shallow pretence of concern for his health, and should be an idiot indeed if he imagined that his state of health was the real cause of their moving for a new speaker, without saying a word to him upon the subject previously. He called upon ministers to tell him why he was to be thus disgracefully dismissed. If he had done what was wrong, let his crime be told and exposed.

Mr Fox also spoke with great asperity against ministers; but Mr Cornwall carried his election by a majority of 203 to 134.

On the accession of the marquess of Rockingham to power, his private friend, Sir Fletcher Norton, was gratified with a peerage, by the title of Baron Grantley. He died on the 1st of January, 1789.

As a lawyer, Lord Grantley was universally admitted to be eminent; and it was remarked by Johnson, "Much may be done, if a man puts his whole mind to a particular subject. By doing so, Norton has made himself the great lawyer which he is allowed to be." The following gossiping story is related of him by Lord Orford:—"His mother lived in a mighty shabby house at Preston, which Sir Fletcher began to think not quite suitable to the dignity of one who has the honour of being his parent; he cheapened a better, in which were two pictures valued at £60; the attorney insisted on having them as fixtures for nothing; the landlord refused, the bargain was broken off, and the dowager madam remains in her original hut."

## General Gage.

BORN A. D. 1721.—DIED A. D. 1788

THIS officer was the second son of Viscount Gage. He entered the army in early life, and in April, 1774, was appointed governor of Massachusetts in the room of Mr. Hutchinson, who, finding himself unable to curb the disaffected spirits in that province, applied for leave to return home.

The day after that on which Gage entered on the duties of his governorship, a meeting was called in Boston, and a general congress determined on. The first measures of the governor were mild and conciliatory; but the delegates to the congress, which met at Philadelphia, set his authority at defiance. They met on the day appointed; deliberated with closed doors; and drew up and published a declaration of rights. General Gage now recalled the writs which he had issued for convening the general court of representatives in October, but they met in direct contempt of his authority; voted themselves into a provincial congress, with Hancock at their head; appointed a committee to present a remonstrance to the governor couched in a very daring strain; and, on his refusing to recognise them as a lawful assembly, proceeded to exercise all the functions not only of the legislative but also of the executive power. At one of their subsequent meetings, a plan was drawn up for the immediate defence of the province; magazines of ammunition and stores were provided for 12,000 militia; and an enrolment was made of minute-men,—so called from their engaging to turn out with their arms at a minute's warning. General Gage foresaw the inevitable issue of such proceedings; but still confined himself to the mildest measures that were consistent with prudence and caution. He admonished the people not to be deceived by the provincial congress, nor led by their influence to incur the penalties of sedition and rebellion; he also proceeded to fortify the narrow isthmus called Boston Neck, which connects that town with the continent, by means of which the inhabitants became in some sort hostages for the behaviour

of the rest of their countrymen; he secured such magazines as were within his reach, and spiked the cannon of some batteries so as to prevent their being serviceable to an enemy.<sup>1</sup>

The colonists, nothing daunted by the governor's remonstrances, proceeded to put themselves in the best possible posture of defence. Provisions were collected and stored in different places, particularly at Concord, about twenty miles from Boston. General Gage determined to destroy the stores which he knew were collected for the support of a provincial army. Wishing to accomplish this without bloodshed, he took every precaution to effect it by surprise, and without alarming the country. At eleven o'clock at night on the 18th of April, 800 grenadiers and light infantry, marched for Concord, under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Smith. About two in the morning, 130 of the Lexington militia had assembled to oppose them; between four and five o'clock in the morning the British troops made their appearance. Major Pitcairn, who led the advanced corps, rode up to them, and called out, "Disperse, you rebels! throw down your arms and disperse!" But they still continued in a body, on which he advanced nearer, discharged his pistol, and ordered his soldiers to fire. This was done, and with this act commenced the American war. Three or four of the militia were killed on the green; a few more were shot after they had begun to disperse. The royal detachment then proceeded on to Concord, and executed their commission. In their return to Lexington they were exceedingly annoyed by the provincials who pressed on their rear, and pouring in on all sides, fired from behind stone-walls, and similar coverts, which supplied the place of lines and redoubts. At Lexington the regulars were joined by a detachment of 900 men, under Lord Percy, which had been sent by Gage to support Colonel Smith. This reinforcement, having two pieces of cannon, kept the provincials at a greater distance, but they continued a constant though irregular and scattered fire, which did great execution. A little after sunset the regulars reached Bunker's hill, having marched that day between thirty and forty miles. On the next day they crossed Charleston ferry, and returned to Boston. The provincial congress of Massachusetts, which was in session at the time of the Lexington skirmish, despatched an account of it to Great Britain, accompanied with many depositions, to prove that the British troops were the aggressors. They also drew up an address to the inhabitants of Great Britain, in which, after complaining of their sufferings, they say, "These have not yet detached us from our royal sovereign; we profess to be his loyal and dutiful subjects; and though hardly dealt with, as we have been, are still ready, with our lives and fortunes, to defend his person, crown, and dignity; nevertheless, to the persecution and tyranny of his evil ministry, we will not tamely submit. Appealing to Heaven for the justice of our cause, we determine to die or be free."

Intelligence that the British troops had marched out of Boston into the country on some hostile purpose, having been forwarded by expresses from one committee to another, great bodies of the militia, not only from Massachusetts but the adjacent colonies, marched to oppose them. Hitherto the Americans had had no regular army. From prin-

<sup>1</sup> Miller's History

ciples of policy they cautiously avoided that measure, lest they might subject themselves to the charge of being the aggressors. All their military transactions were carried on under the old established militia-laws. For the defence of the colonies, the inhabitants had been enrolled in companies, and taught the use of arms. The laws for this purpose had never been more closely observed than for some months previous to the Lexington affair. Immediately after this encounter the forts and magazines throughout the country were for the most part taken possession of by parties of the provincial militia. Public money was also seized for common services. The provincial congress of Massachusetts voted that "an army of 30,000 men be immediately raised; that 13,600 be of their own province; and that a letter and delegate be sent to the several colonies of New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode island." In consequence of this vote, the business of recruiting was begun, and in a short time a provincial army was paraded in the vicinity of Boston, which, though far below what had been voted by the provincial congress, was much superior in numbers to the royal army. The command of this force was given to General Ward.

About the latter end of May reinforcements from Great Britain arrived at Boston. Three British generals, Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, whose behaviour in the preceding war had gained them great reputation, also arrived on the 25th of May. General Gage, thus reinforced, prepared for acting with more decision; but before he proceeded to extremities he issued a proclamation offering pardon in the king's name to all who should forthwith lay down their arms and return to their peaceable duties, excepting only Samuel Adams and John Hancock, whose offences were said to be of too flagitious a nature to admit of any thing short of condign punishment. By this proclamation it was also declared, "that as the courts of judicature were shut, martial law should take place, till a due course of justice should be re-established." A considerable height at the entrance of the peninsula of Charleston, was so situated as to make the possession of it a matter of great consequence to either of the contending parties. Orders were therefore issued on the 16th of June, by the provincial commanders, that a detachment of 1000 men should intrench upon this height. By some mistake, Breed's hill, high and large like the other, but situated near Boston, was marked out for the intrenchments instead of Bunker's hill. The provincials proceeded to Breed's hill, and worked with so much diligence, that between midnight and the dawn of the morning they had thrown up a small redoubt about eight rods square. As this eminence overlooked Boston, General Gage thought it necessary to drive the provincials from it. About noon, therefore, of the 7th of June, he detached Major-general Howe, and Brigadier-general Pigot, with a large force, which carried the redoubt after sustaining great loss.

On the 15th of June, George Washington was appointed commander-in-chief of all the forces raised, or to be raised, for the defence of the colonies. When General Washington joined the American army, he found the British intrenched on Bunker's hill, having also three floating batteries in Mystic river, and a twenty gun ship below the ferry, between Boston and Charleston. They had also a battery on Copse's hill, and were strongly fortified on the Neck. The Americans were intrenched at Winter hill, Prospect hill, and Roxbury, communicating



with one another by small posts, over a distance of ten miles. The army put under the command of General Washington, amounted to about 14,500 men. These had been so judiciously stationed round Boston as to confine the British to the town, and to exclude them from the forage and provisions which the adjacent country afforded. This force was thrown into three grand divisions. Ward commanded the right wing at Roxbury; Lee the left at Prospect hill; and the centre was commanded by Washington. Towards the close of the year, on the 10th of October, General Gage sailed for England, and the command of the British troops devolved on General Howe.<sup>2</sup>

General Gage did not again return to America, or assume any military command. His death took place on the 2d of April, 1788.

### Lord Heathfield.

BORN A. D. 1718.—DIED A. D. 1790.

THIS intrepid commander was the eighth and youngest son of Sir Gilbert Elliott. He was born in the parish of Hobkirk, county of Roxburgh. After having finished his literary studies at Leyden, he proceeded to the Ecole Royal of La Fère in Picardy, where he studied the military art and those branches of science connected with the profession of arms.

He was still a very young man when he returned to Britain, and received a commission in the 23d regiment of foot. He soon after obtained the adjutancy of the second troop of horse-grenadiers; and in 1756 was appointed colonel of that corps, and aid-de-camp to George II. In 1761 he raised a regiment of cavalry for the king's service, which was called Elliott's light-horse, at the head of which he highly distinguished himself in Germany. He was now raised to the rank of lieutenant-general.

In 1776, General Elliott obtained the important command in which he was so soon to signalize himself and render his name for ever memorable in the military annals of his country. While acting commander-in-chief of the forces in Ireland, he was appointed governor of Gibraltar, and commanded to proceed forthwith to that fortress. The close investment of this place immediately followed the Spanish declaration of war. About the middle of August, 1779, the enemy's troops began to break ground before the place, and the garrison soon suffered dreadfully for want of provisions. Admiral Rodney relieved them once, and occasional supplies were received from the coast of Barbary. But the vigilance of the besiegers at last cut them off from all aid by sea.

Finding that the garrison still held out against their blockade, the Spaniards next endeavoured to reduce the place by bombardment. On the 23d of May, 1781, a cannonade was commenced on the part of the besiegers, which lasted day and night, without intermission, for three weeks; after which it slackened a little, but was kept up for above twelve months, with very partial interruptions only. "The fatigues of

<sup>2</sup> Miller's History.

the garrison were extreme ; but the loss of men was less than might have been expected. For the first ten weeks of this unexampled bombardment, the whole number of killed and wounded was only about three hundred. The damage done to the works was trifling. The houses in the town, about five hundred in number, were mostly destroyed. Such of the inhabitants as were not buried in the ruins of their houses, or torn to pieces by the shells, fled to the remote parts of the rock ; but destruction followed them to places which had always been deemed secure. No scene could be more deplorable. Mothers and children clasped in each other's arms, were so completely torn to pieces, that it seemed more like an annihilation, than a dispersion of their shattered fragments. Ladies of the greatest sensibility and most delicate constitutions deemed themselves happy to be admitted to a few hours of repose in the casement amidst the noise of a crowded soldiery, and the groans of the wounded. At the first onset General Elliott retorted on the besiegers a shower of fire ; but foreseeing the difficulty of procuring supplies, he soon retrenched, and received with comparative unconcern, the fury and violence of his adversaries. By the latter end of November, the besiegers had brought their works to that state of perfection which they intended. The care and ingenuity employed upon them were extraordinary. The best engineers of France and Spain had united their abilities, and both kingdoms were filled with sanguine expectations of speedy success. In this conjuncture, when all Europe was in suspense concerning the fate of the garrison, and when, from the prodigious efforts made for its reduction, many believed that it could not hold out much longer, a sally was projected and executed, which in about two hours destroyed those works, which had required so much time, skill, and labour to accomplish. A body of two thousand chosen men, under the command of Brigadier-general Ross, marched out about two o'clock in the morning of the twenty-seventh November, 1781, and at the same instant made a general attack on the whole exterior front of the lines of the besiegers. The Spaniards gave way on every side, and abandoned their works. The pioneers and artillery-men spread their fire with such rapidity, that in a little time every thing combustible was in flames. The mortars and cannon were spiked, and their beds, platforms, and carriages destroyed. The magazines blew up one after another. The loss of the detachment, which accomplished all this destruction, was inconsiderable. This unexpected event disconcerted the besiegers ; but they soon recovered from their alarm, and with a perseverance almost peculiar to their nation, determined to go on with the siege."<sup>1</sup>

The court of Spain maddened by this defeat, resolved to put forth its utmost strength and resources in a new attack on this important stronghold. The duke de Crillon, who had recently effected the reduction of Minorca, was now "appointed to conduct the siege of Gibraltar, and it was resolved to employ the whole strength of the Spanish monarchy in seconding his operations. No means were neglected, nor expense spared, that promised to forward the views of the besiegers. From the failure of all plans hitherto adopted for effecting the reduction of Gibraltar, it was resolved to adopt new ones. Among the various projects for this purpose, one which had been formed by the chevalier

<sup>1</sup> Miller's History of the Reign of George III.

d'Arcon was deemed the most worthy of trial. This was to construct such floating batteries as could neither be sunk nor fired. With this view, their bottoms were made of the thickest timber, and their sides of wood and cork long soaked in water, with a large layer of wet sand between.

"To prevent the effects of red hot balls, a number of pipes were contrived to carry water through every part of them, and pumps were provided to keep these constantly supplied with water. The people on board were to be sheltered from the fall of bombs by a cover of rope netting, which was made sloping, and overlaid with wet hides.

"These floating batteries, ten in number, were made out of the hulls of large vessels, cut down for the purpose, and carried from twenty-eight to ten guns each, and were seconded by eighty large boats mounted with guns of heavy metal, and also by a multitude of frigates, ships of force, and some hundreds of small craft.

"General Elliott, the intrepid defender of Gibraltar, was not ignorant that inventions of a peculiar kind were prepared against him, but knew nothing of their construction. He nevertheless provided for every circumstance of danger that could be foreseen or imagined. The thirteenth of September was fixed upon by the besiegers for making a grand attack, when the new invented machines, with all the united powers of gunpowder and artillery in the highest state of improvement, were to be called into action. The combined fleets of France and Spain in the bay of Gibraltar amounted to forty-eight sail of the line. Their batteries were covered with one hundred and fifty-four pieces of heavy brass cannon. The numbers employed by land and sea against the fortress were estimated at one hundred thousand men. With this force, and by the fire of three hundred cannon, mortars, and howitzers, from the adjacent isthmus, it was intended to attack every part of the British works at one and the same instant. The surrounding hills were covered with people assembled to behold the spectacle. The cannonade and bombardment were tremendous. The showers of shot and shells from the land batteries and the ships of the besiegers, and from the various works of the garrison, exhibited a most dreadful scene. Four hundred pieces of the heaviest artillery were playing at the same moment. The whole peninsula seemed to be overwhelmed in the torrents of fire which were incessantly poured upon it. The Spanish floating batteries for some time answered the expectations of their framers. The heaviest shells often rebounded from their tops, while thirty-two pound shot made no visible impression upon their hulls. For some hours the attack and defence were so equally supported, as scarcely to admit of any appearance of superiority on either side. The construction of the battering ships were so well-calculated for withstanding the combined force of fire and artillery, that they seemed for some time to bid defiance to the powers of the heaviest ordnance. In the afternoon the effects of hot shot became visible. At first there was only an appearance of smoke, but in the course of the night, after the fire of the garrison had continued about fifteen hours, two of the floating batteries were in flames, and several more were visibly beginning to kindle. The endeavours of the besiegers were now exclusively directed to bring off the men from the burning vessels; but in this they were interrupted. Captain Curtis, who lay ready with twelve gun boats, advanced and fired upon them

with such order and expedition, as to throw them into confusion before they had finished their business. They fled with their boats, and abandoned to their fate great numbers of their people. The opening of daylight disclosed a most dreadful spectacle. Many were seen in the midst of the flames crying out for help, while others were floating upon pieces of timber, exposed to equal danger from the opposite element. The generous humanity of the victors equalled their valour, and was the more honourable, as the exertions of it exposed them to no less danger than those of active hostility. In endeavouring to save the lives of his enemies, Captain Curtis nearly lost his own. While for the most benevolent purpose he was alongside of the floating batteries, one of them blew up, and some heavy pieces of timber fell into his boat and pierced through its bottom. By similar perilous exertions, near four hundred men were saved from inevitable destruction. The exercise of humanity to an enemy under such circumstances of immediate action and impending danger, conferred more true honour than could be acquired by the most splendid series of victories. It in some measure obscured the impression made to the disadvantage of human nature, by the madness of mankind in destroying each other by wasteful wars. The floating batteries were all consumed. The violence of their explosion was such, as to burst open doors and windows at a great distance. Soon after the destruction of the floating batteries, Lord Howe, with thirty-five ships of the line, brought to the brave garrison an ample supply of every thing wanted, either for their support or their defence."<sup>2</sup>

General Elliott now received the thanks of both houses of parliament, for his eminent services, together with a pension of £1,500 per annum, and the insignia of the Bath. He retained his command until 1787, when he was raised to the peerage, by the title of Baron Heathfield and Gibraltar. On the 6th of July, 1790, while preparing to set out from Aix-la-Chapelle, for the scene of his former exploits, he was attacked by a paralytic stroke, which proved fatal. His remains were brought to England, and interred at Heathfield, in Sussex. A monument was erected to his memory in Westminster Abbey, at the public expense; and the corporation of London decorated the walls of the common-council chamber, with a fine picture by Sir Joshua Reynolds, of the siege of Gibraltar, in which the figure of its heroic defender occupies the most conspicuous place. By his wife, Anne, daughter of Sir Francis Drake of Devonshire, Lord Heathfield had one son, on whose death, in 1813, the title became extinct.

### Philip Yorke, Earl of Hardwicke.

BORN A. D. 1720.—DIED A. D. 1790.

THIS accomplished nobleman was the eldest son of Philip, earl of Hardwicke, lord-high-chancellor, and was born 20th December, 1720. At the school of Dr Newcombe, at Hackney, he received the first rudiments of his education; and from that seminary, on 26th May, 1737, was removed to Bennet college, Cambridge, under the tuition of the

<sup>2</sup> Miller's History of the Reign of George III.

Rev. Dr Salter. In the year following he was appointed one of the tellers of the exchequer, in the room of Sir Charles Turner, Bart. deceased. In 1740 he left college, and soon after married Lady Jemima Campbell, only daughter of John, Viscount Glenorchy, by Lady Amabel Grey, eldest daughter of Henry, Duke of Kent, who succeeded, on her father's decease, to the title of Marchioness Grey and Baroness Lucas of Crudwell. By this marriage he became possessed of a large part of the duke's estate.

He early engaged as a legislator. In 1741 he was chosen member for Ryegate, in Surrey; and, in 1747, one of the representatives for the county of Cambridge, as he was also in 1754 and 1761. At the installation of the duke of Newcastle, as chancellor of the university of Cambridge, in 1749, he had the degree of LL. D. conferred upon him. In 1764 he succeeded his father in his title and estate; and, after a fierce contention for the office of lord-high-steward of the university, he obtained that honour against Lord Sandwich. The infirm state of his lordship's health, combined with his attachment to literary pursuits, prevented him from taking any very active part in the politics of the day. He had the honour, however, of a seat in the cabinet during the existence of that short-lived administration, of which Lord Rockingham was the head, but without any salary or official situation, which, though repeatedly offered to him, he never would accept. He died on the 16th of May, 1790.

His lordship throughout life was devoted to literary pursuits, and was the author or editor of several works, besides the assistance which he rendered on various occasions to authors who have acknowledged their obligations to him. Whilst a member of the university of Cambridge, he engaged with several friends in a work similar to the celebrated 'Travels of Anacharsis in Greece.' It was entitled 'Athenian Letters; or the Epistolary Correspondence of an Agent of the King of Persia residing at Athens during the Peloponnesian War,' and consisted of letters supposed to have been written by contemporaries of Socrates, Pericles, and Plato. A few copies were printed in 1741 by Bottenham, and in 1782 a hundred copies were reprinted; but still the work remained unknown to the public at large. At length a correct and authentic edition was published in 1798, in two volumes 4to. The friends who assisted in this publication were, the Hon. Charles Yorke, afterwards lord-high-chancellor, Dr Rooke, master of Christ's college, Cambridge, Dr Green, afterwards bishop of Lincoln, Daniel Wray, Esq. the Rev. Mr Heaton of Bennet college, Dr Heberden, Henry Coventry, Esq. the Rev. Mr Laney, Mrs Catherine Talbot, Dr Birch, and Dr Salter.

Though a good classical scholar, yet the object to which Lord Hardwicke, from his early youth, particularly directed his attention, was modern history. He printed a small private impression of the correspondence of Sir Dudley Carlton, ambassador to the States-general during the reign of James I., and prefixed to it an historical preface, containing an account of the many important negotiations that were carried on during that interesting period. A second impression of fifty copies only was printed in 1775. The last publication of Lord Hardwicke was entitled, 'Miscellaneous State Papers from 1501 to 1726,' in two volumes, 4to. containing a number of select papers, such "as mark

most strongly the characters of celebrated princes and their ministers, and illustrate some memorable era, or remarkable series of events." This is a valuable collection, well worthy the attention of the historian.

## Colonel Barre.

BORN A. D. 1726.—DIED A. D. 1792.

ISAAC BARRE was born in Ireland about the year 1726. He entered the army at an early age, and was present at the death of Wolfe, before Quebec. He was introduced into parliament by the earl of Shelburne; and distinguished himself by his opposition to the American war. He died in 1792; for many years before his death he was afflicted with entire blindness.

A contemporary says of him: "He has held up the highest tone of opposition, and has frequently made the minister uneasy on his seat; filling at the same time the whole treasury-bench with terror and dismay. Colonel Barré's oratory is manly, nervous, and convincing; and such as may be supposed to have actuated the breast, and have fallen from the mouth of a Grecian or Roman general, when the legislator, archon, or consul, were able to carry into execution those plans and operations of war which they proposed or supported in the senate or their popular assemblies. He is generally well-informed, particularly in the way of his profession, and never fails to deliver his sentiments in open, bold terms, seemingly without any predilection for his friends or his opponents, from the former of whom he frequently differs. His matter is not various, but generally selected and well-chosen. He never speaks on any subject of which he is not well-informed; and usually deals in truths too clear to be controverted, and too severe to be palliated or defended. The minister of war,<sup>1</sup> as well as the minister of the finances,<sup>2</sup> frequently feels the weight of those truths, and the energy of expression with which they are accompanied and enforced; and that in a manner too pungent and mortifying to be ever forgotten, or perhaps forgiven. He is well-acquainted with the whole detail of the military establishment, with the arrangements dependent on it, and with the proper ordering of the troops, whether directed to operations of war, or in times of domestic tranquillity. In short, as he is one of the most pointed forcible speakers in the house—though perhaps far from being the greatest orator, if we were to hazard a conjecture on mere appearance—we are inclined to think that administration would esteem him the most valuable acquisition they could at present obtain; and that he is the individual in the house of commons, on the side of opposition—Messrs Burke, Dunning, or Fox, not excepted—in the present state of things, whose defection would deserve most to be regretted. On the other hand, Colonel Barre, though a man of letters, does not possess the extensive fund of knowledge for which some of his partizans are so eminently distinguished. The early part of his days was passed in camps, and learning the rudiments of his profession, not in courts or senates. His oratory has few of those graces which recommend even

<sup>1</sup> Lord Barrington.

<sup>2</sup> Lord North.

trifles. He seldom directs his elocution so as to gain the avenues to the heart; and when he makes the attempt he always misses his way; he never studied the graces—or if he did, he made as unsuccessful a progress as Phil. Stanhope. He speaks like a soldier, thinks like a politician, and delivers his sentiments like a man. On the whole, he may and ought to profit from the sneers of his antagonists. They call him the Story-teller, and with great justice; for whether it be the salvation of a great empire, or a skirmish with a few wild Indians, the colonel is never at a loss for a story in point, in which he himself had the fortune to be one of the *dramatis personæ*. We will close this rude sketch, by affirming, that we have heard him interlard some of his most pointed speeches on the most important occasions, with anecdotes that would disgrace a school-boy at the Christmas recess; or a garrulous old woman, when she takes it into her head to be most narrative, uninteresting, and loquacious."

### Sir John Eardley Wilmot.

BORN A. D. 1709.—DIED A. D. 1792.

THIS eminent lawyer was born at Derby on the 16th of August, 1709. He was the second son of Robert Wilmot of Osmaston. He received his elementary education at the free school of his native place, from which he was removed to Westminster school, and subsequently to Trinity-hall, Cambridge. His professional views at first inclined to the church, but, in compliance with his father's wish, he finally adopted the law, and was called to the bar in 1732.

In the year 1753 he was offered the rank of king's counsel, and subsequently of king's sergeant, but declined both, in consequence of a resolution which he had early formed to withdraw himself as much as possible from public life. Ultimately he withdrew from the metropolis, and settled in his native county as a provincial counsel; but soon after his taking this step, he was raised to the king's bench in room of Sir Martin Wright. He took his seat in Hilary term, 1755, and, according to custom, was knighted. In 1766 he was prevailed upon, though not without difficulty, to accept of the chief justiceship of the court of common pleas. To his son, a youth of seventeen, he is said to have thus expressed himself on his new appointment. "I will tell you a secret worth knowing and remembering; the elevation I have met with in life, particularly this last instance of it, has not been owing to any superior merit or abilities, but to my humility, to my not having set up myself above others, and to an uniform endeavour to pass through life void of offence towards God and man." His conduct in the court of common pleas was marked by candour and urbanity mingled with firmness, and united to the most unimpeachable impartiality. The uprightness with which he administered justice between the crown and the subject is sufficiently manifested by his decision against the legality of general warrants in the memorable case of *Wilkes v. Lord Halifax* and others. "There is no doubt," said his lordship, "but that the warrant whereby the plaintiff was imprisoned, and his papers seized, was illegal; it has undergone the consideration of the court of king's bench,

and has very properly been deemed so by every judge who has seen it; and there is no pretence or foundation for the defendant in this cause to make any stand against this action by way of justification, in the way he has done, because it clearly and manifestly is an illegal warrant, contrary to the common law of the land. And if warrants of this kind had been found to be legal, I am sure, as one of the plaintiff's counsel observed, it is extremely proper for the legislature of this kingdom to interpose and provide a remedy, because all the private papers of a man as well as his liberty would be in the power of the secretary of state, or any of his servants. The law makes no difference between great and petty officers. Thank God, they are all amenable to justice, and the law will reach them if they step over the boundaries which the law has prescribed."

In 1770, on the resignation of Lord Camden, and the death of Mr Yorke, Sir Eardley Wilmot was offered the great seal by the duke of Grafton. But he at once and firmly declined the honour; and, although offered it again in the course of the same year by Lord North, persisted in his resolution. Indeed, besides his strong aversion to public life, which he had never yet overcome, his health was at this time so bad, that instead of accepting a more laborious office, he felt necessitated soon after to resign his seat in the common pleas. When released from the toils of office, he devoted himself chiefly to the society of his own family, but occasionally attended appeals before the privy-council. He died on the 5th of February, 1792.

### Montague, Earl of Sandwich.

BORN A. D. 1718.—DIED A. D. 1792.

JOHN GEORGE MONTAGUE, earl of Sandwich, was born in the month of November, 1718. He was educated at Eton and Trinity-college, Cambridge.

From the time of his taking his seat in the house of lords, until 1744, he was in opposition to ministry. On the formation of the Broad-bottom ministry he came in as one of the junior lords of the admiralty. In the duke of Bedford's ministry he held the office of secretary of state. In 1767, on the return of the duke's party to office, he was appointed postmaster-general. "Here," says the writer of 'Characters,' published in 1777, "he remained like his predecessor,<sup>1</sup> in a kind of ministerial probation, till a vacancy in the cabinet should happen; and there he might have remained ever since if the scruples and fears of a certain noble viscount<sup>2</sup> had not given his lordship's friends an opportunity of calling him into cabinet. On his last-mentioned noble friend's resignation of the seals, towards the close of the year 1770, he was appointed secretary of state for the northern department, in the room of Lord Rochford, who succeeded Lord Weymouth in the southern. He did not remain long in this situation; for an honest tar,<sup>3</sup> who then presided at the admiralty board, finding himself rendered a cypher through the overbearing mandates of a junto, and the treachery of his

<sup>1</sup> Lord Hillsborough.

<sup>2</sup> Lord Weymouth.

<sup>3</sup> Sir Edward, afterwards Lord Hawke.



brethren in the mock or ostensible cabinet, on one hand; and perceiving, on the other, that he had been grossly deceived and imposed on by his surveyor,\* resigned in a fit of chagrin and disgust, which made way for our hero, who was appointed first commissioner of the admiralty very early in the spring, 1771. The conduct and language held in both houses of parliament on this occasion, was to the last degree curious and entertaining: it proved beyond question what ministers were capable of saying,—what the king's friends were capable of enacting,—what the high priest and his immediate associates and assistants were capable of commanding,—and what the spiritless, deluded, degenerate people of this country were capable of enduring, without even a groan.

“As we would wish to clear the ground as we proceed, and not report naked occurrences without pointing to the causes, when those causes become obvious, we beg leave to remind our readers, that our lord had done away all his former transgressions, and knit himself closer to the juncto than ever, by the very distinguished part he took in the house of lords during the spring session, 1770, in relation to the Middlesex election, particularly by that celebrated speech made in his closet, printed and disseminated by previous agreement, and said to be spoken on the 2d of February, on Lord Rockingham's motion, ‘that the house of commons, in the exercise of its judicature in matters of election, is bound to judge according to the law of the land, and the known and established law and custom of parliament, which is part thereof.’ He was then at the post-office, in a state somewhat resembling a deserving naval veteran of rank and meritorious service appointed governor of Greenwich, happy in retirement, yet ready to come forward when an opportunity of serving his country in a more elevated and efficient situation should call him forth.

“From his taking his seat at the board, at which he at present presides, till the commencement of the present troubles in America, we know very little of his lordship, in either his official, cabinet, or parliamentary capacity, worth recording, more than what might be included within this compendious description, that he supported administration,—that is, in plain English, he did not commit an act of political suicide on his own precious person. It is true, the house of commons were divided into two parties, respecting his conduct and abilities. His adversaries contended that there was never known in this country so high or burthensome a naval peace-establishment, that half-a-million, and other great and extraordinary grants, had been made on his lordship's entrance into office; that besides these naval grants made at that time, the articles of extraordinaries, wear and tear, repairs, buildings and rebuildings, exceeded any thing ever known within the same period; that, added to this, a heavy navy-debt was still incurring; that the navy, with all this monstrous and unprecedented expense, was far from being in the respectable condition it was represented; and at all events, if what his lordship's blazoners and defenders said was strictly just, then the house of commons was deceived by administration; for how was it possible, if what ministers asserted respecting the flourishing state of the navy on the threatened rupture with Spain were true, that the nation should be put to the annual extraordinary expense of at least a

\* Sir Thomas Slade, surveyor of the Navy.

million in buildings, rebuildings, and purchase of timber, and all kinds of stores? His friends, particularly the minister—who nevertheless complained loudly of the expense—said, that the navy, it is true, when his lordship came into office, was in a ruinous state; yet ministers had not misled or misinformed the house, for the ships built of green timber in the height of the late war rotted imperceptibly, and were obliged to be broken up for other uses, or sold; that the noble lord who now presides at the board, perceiving the necessity of putting our navy on a respectable footing, had laid in vast stocks of seasoned timber not subject to decay, and a proportionable quantity of all kinds of naval stores, the consequence of which would be, that late in 1774, or early in 1775, we should have in our different docks as guardships, and at sea, above eighty men of war of the line fit for actual service, and upwards of twenty of them manned and ready for sea at a few hours' notice. Which of those accounts may be nearer the truth—for we have hardly a doubt that they are both exaggerated—we will not pretend to determine.

“ His lordship has been all along one of the warmest advocates for the unmodified claim of supremacy of this country over America, on the alternative of absolute conquest, as against an alien enemy on our side, and unconditional submission on theirs. His arguments are built entirely on the same foundation with those of Lord Mansfield. The right of taxation, he contends, is in the British legislature; and though we were willing to relax or concede, America is not; therefore we must assert that right, or for ever relinquish it. On the point of expediency, his lordship is, if possible, more express and explicit. He has engaged not only for the pacific and friendly dispositions of the courts of Versailles and Madrid, as often as any fears for the event of their conduct have been suggested, but he has done more; he has engaged and pledged himself repeatedly to parliament and the public, for the cowardly dispositions of every British subject of American birth, from Hudson's bay to St Augustine. He has compared them—we have heard his lordship with our own ears—to the cowardly Asiatics defeated by a certain deceased noble lord,<sup>5</sup> whom he distinguished by the well-known appellation of the ‘Heaven-born General;’ and added emphatically, in answer to something urged by his opponents in debate, respecting their numbers, that the more numerous they were the better; it would give him pleasure to hear that the rebels consisted of a hundred thousand instead of ten: for in that event, as in Asia, and wherever else a regular disciplined force were to contend with a mob—particularly a mob composed of cowards, braggards, and poltroons—success would be more certain, and would be bought on cheaper and easier terms,—one victory would answer every purpose of a dozen, and the flame of rebellion would be sooner extinguished, and with less trouble and bloodshed.

“ His lordship is undoubtedly a man of talents, and well-acquainted with business; but whether he is equal to the very important post he now occupies, is more than we dare venture to decide on. He is certainly, from his ignorance of naval affairs, extremely liable to be imposed on; and of course he may be led into error, in proportion—

<sup>5</sup> Lord Clive.

strange as it may appear—to the goodness of his heart, and the soundness of his understanding. His lordship's talents, in other respects, are confessed. He is certainly a great statesman. If report be not a liar, he convinced the late Lord Chesterfield, that he could outdo him even in his own way; and showed the lords Bute and Holland, and the celebrated George Grenville, of plodding memory, that honesty and quick parts were an overmatch for mere cunning and a knowledge of Cocker's arithmetic. Be that as it may, Lord Sandwich is now a noun-substantive; or if there be a question who supports him, and has for some years, it can only be solved at Buckingham-house.

"As a parliamentary speaker, Lord Sandwich certainly stands very low on the list; and it is only on account of his political value in other respects, that we have brought him forward thus early. His discourses are awkward, loose, and detached. He generally stands with his hands in his pockets, or as if in the very act of driving a flock of geese, or forcing them into the end of a narrow lane. His speeches are stories, or short replies to what is offered on the other side, consisting chiefly of contradictions. In the midst of his gravest arguments, he lets fall some expression which throws the house in a roar, and seems little solicitous whether it be at the expense of himself or his antagonists."

This sketch, though overstrained in some points, is not very far wide of the truth. The earl of Sandwich was a man of negative rather than positive qualities. His patronage of Captain Cook, however, deserves all praise. He died on the 30th of April, 1792.

## George, Lord Rodney.

BORN A. D. 1717.—DIED A. D. 1792.

THIS distinguished naval officer was the second son of Henry Rodney of Walton-on-Thames, and was born in December, 1717. He entered the navy while a boy, and in the spring of 1742 was appointed by Admiral Mathews, then commanding in the Mediterranean, one of his lieutenants. In the same year he was promoted to be captain of the Plymouth, of sixty guns, from which he passed successively to the Sheerness, the Ludlow Castle, and the Eagle. In the latter vessel he contributed eminently to Sir Edward Hawke's success off Cape Finisterre, in October, 1747. In 1749 he was appointed governor of Newfoundland. During his absence in this capacity he was returned to parliament for the borough of Saltash, and, at the next general election, for Oakhampton.

After a series of minor services in various commands, he was appointed rear-admiral of the blue in 1759. Soon after this he sailed on an expedition against Havre de Grace, where he succeeded in effectually destroying the whole of the flat-bottomed boats and warlike stores which had been collected in that harbour with the view of invading England. In 1761 he was returned for Penryn, but sailed soon after for Martinico. On his return he was promoted to be vice-admiral of the blue, and, on the 21st of January, 1764, was created a baronet.

On the dissolution of parliament in 1768, he allowed himself to be led into a most ruinous contest for the representation of Northampton,

in which he indeed gained his election, but at the sacrifice of his whole fortune. In 1771 he was appointed rear-admiral of Great Britain, and took the chief command on the Jamaica station. At the expiration of the term allotted for the continuance of that service, he retired to France, with the view of recovering from his pecuniary embarrassments. It is said that while residing abroad he had several splendid offers made him to engage in the French service; but the stories connected with this portion of his life are not sufficiently authenticated. At the conclusion of the year 1779, he was appointed commander-in-chief on the Leeward island station. On his way thither he fell in with sixteen sail of Spanish merchantmen, bound to Cadiz, under convoy of a line of battle ship and six frigates, the whole of which surrendered to him without resistance. Passing on towards Gibraltar, he met with a Spanish fleet of eleven ships of the line and two frigates, off Cape St Vincent, which he instantly engaged; and, in an action of ten hours' continuance, he succeeded in destroying or capturing seven of the larger vessels. Off St Lucia, he fell in with the French fleet, and brought it to action, but it succeeded in bearing off. These successes, however, obtained for him the thanks of both houses of parliament, and the city of Westminster elected him one of its representatives.

Rodney now sailed towards St Eustatia, where the Dutch had established a huge magazine of naval and military stores, notoriously for the supply of our combined enemies. It surrendered without resistance, and property nearly to the amount of £3,000,000, with 150 merchant-ships, and some vessels of war, fell into the hands of the captors. The king and the ministry approved of the admiral's conduct; but a fierce attack was made upon him in the house of commons, by a party who represented him as sacrificing public interests to private advantages, and succeeded for a while in rendering him extremely unpopular throughout the kingdom. He returned to England in bad health, but met and confuted the successive charges brought against him, in a manner which amply satisfied all his friends.

On the death of Lord Hawke, Rodney was appointed vice-admiral of Britain, and repaired immediately to the West India command. Here he was joined by Sir Samuel Hood, and found himself at the head of thirty-six ships of the line. With this fleet he overtook the French fleet, commanded by the Count de Grasse, near the island of Dominica, and having gained the weather-gage, forced the count into action. The contest lasted the whole of the 12th of April, 1782, and is said to have been in a great measure decided by the manœuvre—then nearly new in naval tactics—of breaking through the enemy's line. It has been alleged that Rodney, previously to his sailing on this expedition, had received some hints, as to the new system of manœuvring, from Clerk, but this has never been satisfactorily proved, and there is some evidence to show that the breaking of the enemy's line in this action, was purely incidental and the thought of the moment. Our ships were closely engaged under the lee of the French line,—theirs were dropping down upon us,—and, an opening presenting itself, Rodney, in the *Formidable*, with his seconds, the *Namur* and *Duke*, and immediately supported by the *Canada*, dashed through, and broke the enemy's line about three ships short of the centre, where de Grasse commanded in the *Ville de Paris*. The victory was complete and decisive; the *Ville de Paris* with

four other ships of the line fell into the hands of the conquerors, and another was sunk in the action.

For this service Rodney was advanced to the peerage, on the 19th June, 1782, by the title of Baron Rodney of Rodney-Stoke, in the county of Somerset; and a pension was voted to him of £2000. He died on the 24th of May, 1792.

### **Sir George Pocock.**

BORN A. D. 1706.—DIED A. D. 1792.

THIS excellent naval officer was a son of the Rev. Thomas Pocock, chaplain of Greenwich hospital. He entered the naval service in 1718, under Sir George Byng, whom he accompanied to the Mediterranean. In 1732 he became first lieutenant of the *Namur*. On the 31st of August, 1738, he was promoted to the rank of post-captain, and commanded, successively, the *Woolwich* and the *Sutherland*. In 1748, being then chief officer on the Leeward islands station, he blockaded Martinico, and captured nearly forty vessels belonging to a French convoy from Europe.

In 1754, he proceeded to the East Indies, as captain of the *Cumberland*, and second in command to Rear-admiral Watson. On the 4th of February, 1755, he was made rear-admiral of the blue; and rear of the red on the 4th of June, 1756. In the month of March, 1757, he led the attack, in the *Tiger*, upon Chandernagore, and, though he received seven wounds, did not quit the deck till the end of the action. On the 16th of August following, he succeeded to the chief naval command in the East Indies. He was made vice-admiral of the red on the 31st of January, 1758. Being reinforced by Commodore Stevens, he hoisted his flag in the *Yarmouth*, and put to sea with a squadron which gave chase to seven French ships, on the 29th of April, off the coast near Negapatam. An action ensued, in which the *Yarmouth* was attacked, and, at one time, nearly captured by the enemy. Soon after the engagement, he caused a court-martial to be held at Madras, on the captains of the *Cumberland*, *Newcastle*, and *Weymouth*, for misconduct in not answering his signals in this engagement; one of them was sentenced to be dismissed from his ship, another to be cashiered, and the third to lose a year's rank. Admiral Pocock sailed a second time the same year, in pursuit of the French, whom he succeeded in bringing to action, on the 3d of August; but, after a running fight of an hour, the enemy's fleet escaped into the road of Pondicherry, with a loss of 550 men, killed and wounded, while that of the English was comparatively insignificant. Pocock now proceeded to Bombay, for the purpose of refitting; and, on the 17th of April, 1759, he sailed again in search of the French fleet, with which he came in sight on the 2d of September. He immediately commenced a chase, but was baffled by the going down of the wind. Correctly supposing that the enemy would make for Pondicherry, he proceeded thither, and came to action on the 10th. The French commander, however, after a loss of 1500 men, again sheered off.

In 1760 Pocock returned to England; in 1761 he was created a

**knight of the Bath.** In this latter year he distinguished himself by the taking of the Havannah. On the appointment of Sir Charles Saunders, his junior, to the office of first lord of the admiralty, in 1765, he retired in disgust from the service. He died on the 3d of April, 1792.

Sir George was an able and successful officer, esteemed by his country, beloved by his officers and men, and respected by his enemies abroad. When General Lally was brought prisoner to England, after the reduction of Pondicherry, he begged to be introduced to Admiral Sir George Pocock, whom he thus addressed :—"Dear Sir George, as the first man in your profession, I cannot but respect and esteem you, though you have been the greatest enemy I ever had. But for you, I should have triumphed in India, instead of being made a captive. When we first sailed out to give you battle, I had provided a number of musicians on board the *Zodiaque*, intending to give the ladies a ball upon our victory; but you left me only three fiddlers alive, and treated us all so roughly, that you quite spoiled us for dancing."

### North, Earl of Guildford.

BORN A. D. 1729.—DIED A. D. 1792.

FREDERICK NORTH, eldest son of Francis, Earl of Guildford, was born in 1729. He was educated at Eton and Oxford.

He entered parliament as member for Banbury. In 1759 he was appointed a commissioner of the treasury, and remained in office until 1765. In the following year he was made joint-receiver and paymaster of the forces, and obtained a seat in the privy council. In 1767, on the death of Charles Townshend, he became chancellor of the exchequer; and in 1770, first lord of the treasury.

A contemporary, writing in 1776, thus sketches the political career of his lordship up to that period. "The first time our professed plan will permit us to take notice of his lordship was on the day that the once justly revered Pitt was created Earl of Chatham, and lord-privy-seal, the 2d of August, 1766. On the same day, according to the language of the red book of the exchequer, Lord North was put to-bed to the old woman<sup>1</sup> at the pay-office, without any previous courtship, or indeed knowledge of that venerable old lady.<sup>2</sup> His lordship having sat several years at the treasury-board—where he was known to be industrious, laborious, and plodding, and where he studied Cocker and Wingate's valuable treatises on arithmetic, and the surprising combinations between pounds, shillings, and pence, under that occult and profound financier, the late Mr George Grenville—the shining, flourishing, political Proteus,<sup>3</sup> whose commission bore equal date, and who was appointed chancellor of the exchequer, gave sterility to barrenness,<sup>4</sup> by calling our hero to his confidence, and putting himself under his lord-

<sup>1</sup> The well-known Mr Cooke, member for Middlesex, with whom he was appointed joint-paymaster-general.

<sup>2</sup> Burke says, in his celebrated speech, that his lordship had never seen his bed-fellow's face until the bridal night.

<sup>3</sup> The late Charles Townshend.

<sup>4</sup> A house of commons bull, fathered on the last-mentioned honourable gentleman.

ship's pupilage. Fame saith that here our hero rendered the junto most essential service, and paved the way to that elevated situation he now stands in. Versatile Charles had talents for flourishing away a speech, and for flattering and misleading the house of commons. He could write a pamphlet, or betray a connection, and laugh at it. He could even mitigate the resentments of those he had the most highly offended; and, by a certain mixture of animal vivacity, highly seasoned with wit and good humour, he possessed the knack of disarming the very persons he had thus grossly betrayed. But in every other particular his talents were limited. He hated application, and despised the means of attaining useful knowledge. With such complexional abilities, accompanied with a variety of other circumstances, it is not at all to be wondered that he leaned on Lord North for assistance. He could entertain no jealousy of such a man, because fire and water were not, he knew, more contradictory in their nature. He looked upon his lordship as a useful drudge, fit to be employed to some purposes; and this intercourse being known at Carleton-house, Charles's vanity was flattered; he liked to take the lead; he was detached from the ostensible minister,<sup>5</sup> and from his first commissioner of the treasury,<sup>6</sup> with whom he was by his post more nearly connected. He differed from them in cabinet; and the house of commons, by proper management, being predisposed, Charles, in the committee of supply, proposed that certain duties should be laid on tea, paper, painters' colours, and glass, imported into America. When his colleagues remonstrated against the measure, he held out the house of commons *in terrorem* against them; all resistance he declared was vain; for the house, he assured his principal, were united as one man; and were determined to compel America to contribute towards the support of their military establishment, as well as towards relieving the people of this country from part of the heavy burdens incurred in the protection and assistance of its colonies during the late war.

"Whether Lord North acted as a confidential adviser in this business, or whether he was the confidential medium through which the junto and Charles communicated with each other in the beginning, there is little reason to doubt that his lordship was oftener at the treasury than the pay-office; and infinitely more intimate with Charles Townshend than with his old spouse at the Horse-guards.<sup>7</sup> Charles lived out his year; pity it is that he had not died a year earlier, or had not been still living, to answer for the event of his wild and improvident schemes! What he had often in a ludicrous manner<sup>8</sup> foretold, came, however, to be exactly fulfilled; for before he was quite cold Lord

<sup>5</sup> Lord Chatham.

<sup>6</sup> Duke of Grafton.

<sup>7</sup> Cooke.

<sup>8</sup> "See," said Charles, "that great, heavy, booby-looking, bursten-bellied, seeming changeling. You may believe me, when I assure you it is a fact, that if any thing should happen to me, he will succeed to my place, and very shortly after come to be first commissioner of the treasury." It would appear that George Grenville, also, foresaw the rise of the 'booby.' Shortly after North's first appearance in public life, he was met, one morning, by George Grenville, and another gentleman, walking in the park, and as it appeared, rehearsing an oration. "Here comes blubbering North," said the latter to Grenville; "I wonder what he is getting by heart, for I am sure it can be nothing of his own!" "You are mistaken," replied Grenville; "North is a young man of great promise, and high qualifications; and if he does not relax in his political pursuits, he is very likely to be prime minister."

North was appointed to succeed him in the chancellorship of the exchequer.

"His lordship, in the early persecution of Mr Wilkes, having exerted himself so strenuously as to lay, in a great measure, the foundation of his future fortunes, it was expected, of course, that as minister of the house of commons he would confirm the happy presages formed of his talents and disposition in this line, by those who were the means of pushing him into so respectable a situation. His lordship did not disappoint them; he surpassed even their highest and most sanguine expectations; the cabinet<sup>9</sup> was his own, in spite of his principal;<sup>10</sup> and Wilkes was not only expelled, but incapacitated.

"The time now approached when an opportunity was given to his lordship to smoothe the way to the post of first minister. Charles Townshend's port-duties were not so favourably received in America as either their framer or those who employed him expected. If his lordship had any part, at first or second hand, in urging or pressing Charles to that dangerous, and, we fear, ruinous measure, he acted under cover; but now, as minister of the house of commons, he could no longer dissemble or conceal his sentiments. The non-importation agreement entered into by the several colonies, and a dispute with the province of Massachusetts Bay relative to the quartering of the army, having greatly embarrassed administration, two letters were written, which have been already sufficiently commented on. One of them was the circular letter promising that no more duties should be imposed on America, and that those laid on already should be repealed on commercial principles. This letter was certainly written with his lordship's approbation and consent, he being then of the cabinet, and minister of the house of commons. How then has he performed his promise, or fulfilled the engagement contained in that letter? By refusing to take off the duty on tea, when he moved for the repeal of the duties on paper, painters' colours, and glass; and giving the most full and confidential assurances to the country-gentlemen in the beginning of the three last sessions, in the committee of ways and means, that taxes were expected from America; that they were the leading object of the present hostile measures; that we were not seeking a pepper-corn, but were contending for a substantial support from America, towards lightening the intolerable burdens we now groan under, from the heavy debt incurred in defending, protecting, and securing that country.

"The last part of Lord Chatham's political farce was now to be played. The cabinet on his lordship's closet arrangement consisted of himself, the duke of Grafton, the lords Shelburne, Camden, and Charles Townshend, Sir Charles Saunders, and General Conway. Now let us see how the mock-cabinet stood when the repeal of all the American duties was moved there in 1769. Duke of Grafton, and lords Camden, North, Weymouth, Rochford, Hillsborough, and Bristol. Here we may well repeat the words of a certain noble lord,<sup>11</sup> that scarce a second plank of the vessel originally launched was remaining when the noble duke was outvoted in cabinet, on a proposal of a total repeal of the

<sup>9</sup> The ostensible cabinet was then composed of Lords Camaen, Hillsborough, Gower, Weymouth, Clare, Rochford, North, and the duke of Grafton—a majority of five to two.

<sup>10</sup> Duke of Grafton.

<sup>11</sup> Lord Chatham.



American port-duties; which fatal vote is the true and sole cause of the present civil war.

"The first lord of the treasury at length took it in his head to do what both prudence and spirit had, in our opinion, long before dictated. Finding in the winter 1769, that he was outvoted in cabinet, on a proposition of a total repeal of the American port-duties, and that it was ultimately determined to keep the duty on tea standing, and that the measure in this form was to be submitted to parliament, his grace resigned, and made way for our hero. Accordingly, on the 5th of March, 1770, about six weeks after the noble duke's resignation, and his succeeding to that important post, his lordship moved for leave to bring in a bill to repeal so much of an act passed in the seventh of his present majesty, for levying duties on certain goods imported into America, as related to the duties imposed by said act on the importation of paper, painters' colours, and glass. In his introductory speech on this occasion, he censured, in very severe terms, the conduct of the administration who devised the tax, observing, it was to the last degree absurd to tax the manufactures of Great Britain. As to the tea, that being an article of commerce, and as the consumers in the colonies would continue to have it ninepence a pound cheaper than before the passing of the law, he thought it very proper to have it continued. His lordship was pressed by many of his friends, as well as his opposers, to consent to a total repeal; but he remained inflexible and unmoved, and after a very warm debate, he carried his motion for a partial repeal, by a majority of 204 against 142. This we look upon to be one of the blackest days Britain ever saw,—a day which probably will be as memorable in the British annals, as ever the Ides of March were in those of ancient Rome. The motion on which the question was put was made by Governor Pownal, by way of amendment, in the following words, 'and on teas.'

"His lordship, however, had another opportunity to recover his senses, or to endeavour to restore his employers to theirs; for Mr Alderman Trecothick, on the 9th of April following, moved for leave to bring in a bill to repeal the American tea-duty; but the noble lord seeming averse to it, one of the worthy corps of King's friends<sup>12</sup> moved the order of the day, which was carried by a majority of 80 to 52. His lordship chose to defeat this last effort of the friends of their country, to prevent the evils with which we are at present encompassed, by a kind of play at parliamentary cross purposes, and ended the whole with a joke. He insisted, in the first instance, that Mr Pownal's amendment ought to have the weight of a formal motion; and consequently that Mr Trecothick's motion was premature, because it was against a known rule of the house, that any question which had received a negative should be brought in the same session. The joke was entirely in the style of his lordship's other drolleries. Mr Beckford (then lord-mayor) perceiving that the ministry were determined not to consent to the motion, and only objected to the point of order to conceal their real intentions, hoped the noble lord would consent to a prorogation of the parliament till after the holidays. "Oh,"—replied his lordship in his truly Attic manner—"I am glad to find that a prorogation will

<sup>12</sup> Lord Clare, now Earl Nugent.

content the honourable gentleman;" alluding to the city-petition, lately presented, praying a dissolution of parliament.

"The session of 1771 was a very warm one; the dispute with Spain relative to Falkland's island,—the attack on the judges and the administration of justice in the courts of law,—the contest with the printers<sup>13</sup> and the city-magistrates,—rendered it still more so; but he surmounted all difficulties much better than was at first expected by his most sanguine friends. The session of 1772 was distinguished by his carrying a most difficult point in the house of commons, the Royal marriage-bill. This recommended him strongly to the junto and his royal master, and procured him the ribbon. The session of 1773 was marked by his conducting the East India inquiry, and the bill for new-modelling the affairs of the East India company in Asia and Europe. He was strongly opposed in the cabinet on this measure; but by his perseverance and address he surmounted all the impediments thrown in his way. He had other persons' blunders to answer for as well as his own, during this session. Lord Hillsborough—having been imposed on by some mercenary planters in St Vincent's—disposed of the Caribb islands to the interested informants, which caused an insurrection.

"We come now to the fatal period in which the foundation of the ruin which at present threatens this seemingly devoted empire with destruction was laid,—we mean the spring-session of 1774. The affairs of America had now continued for almost seven years in the greatest confusion. Our threats were set at defiance,—our mere acts of governmental power were disregarded,—our soothings were despised,—our promises were disbelieved: in fine, after making the king descend from his dignity; after ministers had pledged themselves for the performance of what, according to the sound principles of the constitution, they would deserve to have suffered on a block for; after troops had been sent to bully the most refractory colonies into submission, and had been as precipitately withdrawn out of a regard to their personal safety; after their assemblies had been dissolved, to compel them to acquiesce in measures they were averse to, and again convened and permitted to sit, without any satisfaction given or promised; after an absolute act of parliament<sup>14</sup> had been explained by an arbitrary vote of both houses, as purporting to contain a description of persons not then in being, and creating offences of high treason by a constrained and unnatural interpretation of the law; in fine, after America had been in a manner cut off, and its affections estranged from this country for full seven years, and all regular government partly at an end, nothing was yet done. Administration seemed supine and negligent in proportion to the magnitude and number of difficulties they had to encounter with. The riots, however, at Boston the preceding autumn, and the burning of the tea, at length roused a country-gentleman,<sup>15</sup> who gave notice that he would, on a certain day, move the house to resolve itself into a committee to take the affairs of America into consideration. Before that day arrived, his lordship saw the necessity of taking the inquiry out of the hands of opposition, who were then in possession of it, and who

<sup>13</sup> Wheble and Thompson, for breach of privileges in reporting and misrepresenting the debates of the house.

<sup>14</sup> 25th of Henry VIII. for trial of offences committed beyond sea.

<sup>15</sup> Colonel Jennings.

might possibly move some resolution it would be extremely embarrassing to get rid of: he therefore informed the house, that he would, on such a day, move the house for a committee for the same purpose.

"On the day appointed, his lordship moved several resolutions, on the first of which the Boston port-bill was framed. His lordship supported that measure on positive assurances that the East India company would be indemnified for their tea that was destroyed, and that the whole affair would consequently drop. The next bill he brought in was that for altering the charter of the province of Massachusetts bay; he recommended this in the same manner. He assured the house that the present bill was at the special request of the principal inhabitants, traders, and land-owners. Both these assurances proved ill-founded; his lordship was deceived, or purposely deceived parliament. The first measure was very ill-received in America; but the second threw the people into a ferment little short of rebellion.

"The session of 1775, or the first of the present parliament, was opened in a most extraordinary manner. The naval peace establishment was reduced 4,000 men; and though we were informed that General Gage was fortifying Boston Neck, in order to protect himself against hostilities, every thing appeared as tranquil in parliament as if nothing had happened in America. His lordship was a second time awaked from his deceitful slumbers; he accordingly produced some garbled extracts of mutilated letters full of false or exaggerated facts, vague surmises, idle reports, and silly predictions, from the several tools and instruments of power on the spot. His lordship was—strange as it may appear—able to procure a majority of three to one; the navy was augmented 6,000 men, and the army 4,000; a string of penal bills were enacted, full of the most foolish as well as the most barbarous policy; and his lordship closed his parliamentary campaign with assuring his friends and opponents repeatedly that he would have an army of 10,000 or 12,000 men at Boston; that our friends in America were much more numerous than our enemies; but if we should be obliged to proceed to extremities, our force at Boston would be strong enough to compel obedience without striking a blow. His lordship was again grossly mistaken; for obedience was not compelled by fright, terror, or blows,—we got as bad as we gave,—and we threw away three millions of money at least, and several valuable lives, without bringing America to our feet.<sup>16</sup>

"Well, the session of 1776 arrived. His lordship confessed he was deceived, both in the strength of his adversaries, and the real disposition of his friends. He now disclaimed all thoughts of conquest and taxation. America must acknowledge the supremacy and commercial control of this country; that was all he desired. This, however, not being highly relished by the friends of taxation, his lordship soon changed his mind; and by the time that he had led parliament too far to recede, he declared for taxation and unconditional submission, in imitation of his noble and spirited coadjutor; and taking breath, during the Christmas holidays, led parliament a little further, by taking 20,000 foreigners into British pay. With this formidable army of 70,000 land-forces, and 80 ships and frigates of war, at an expense of £15,000,000,

<sup>16</sup> A favourite phrase of his lordship's during the latter part of the session 1774.

including the home-establishment, his lordship has, for the third time, pledged himself to parliament and the public, that America would be finally reduced at the close of the present campaign. Whether that will be so or not, is not yet known; if this last prediction turns out true, we will readily allow him to be the greatest minister this country ever saw; should it turn out the contrary, then will we not hesitate to pronounce him the veriest and most confident bungler that was ever employed by Providence as an instrument to scourge a credulous, degenerate, weak, and wicked nation.

"It is difficult to speak of his lordship's political abilities with any degree of confidence or precision. If he be the mere puppet of the interior cabinet,—the mere child of favouritism,—it is impossible to try him fairly as a minister acting on his own judgment. We must in that case consider him merely as possessed of good talents, but basely sacrificing them to the meanest and most sordid motives. Perhaps it may be said his principles lead him that way, and his inclination and interest unite in urging him to promote the views and wishes of the prince, in preference to those of the people. Be it so: the question in that light is at an end. He cannot be a proper minister in a mixed or popular government, who would endeavour to give the first magistrate more power than is allowed by the constitution; or unite the executive and legislative powers of the state in the same person. On the other hand, supposing Lord North to be really the minister, as much as Walpole, Pelham, or Pitt were severally when they bore the character—which we will as soon believe, till we receive some substantial proof of it, as that he is Mufti or Turkish high-priest—we can by no means allow him fitted either by nature, habit, or inclination, for so great and arduous an undertaking. It would be an invidious task to assign our reasons, nor would it be less tedious and disgusting. His lordship is, however, a man of sound judgment, well-trained in business, of great parliamentary dexterity, and equalled by no man in Britain in plausibility, in a strong appearance of candour, in avoiding explanations in debate, and knowing how to recede from engagements without incurring a breach of promise. His enemies allow him no merit. This is merely the voice of party. His lordship was called to the helm at a most critical season,—in a storm of faction or national resentment, call it which you please. He rode it out with great resolution, and no small degree of ministerial skill; and whether his conduct on that occasion may be imputed unto him as righteousness, there is little doubt that he encountered some perils, and many disagreeable circumstances; and, like an able pilot, brought the political bark safe into port.

"Lord North is certainly a very able speaker. His judgment in conducting a debate is admirable. He is possessed of a vast fund of information relative to almost every subject that comes under discussion. He has a prodigious, sound, accurate memory, arranges his matter judiciously, and never fails to push the strongest part of his argument into the most conspicuous point of view. If he seldom produces any thing new himself, he has a peculiar knack at transferring other people's sentiments, both in print and debate, into his speeches; and that with so much art as not to be easily observed; and never fails to press his antagonists where they are weakest and least capable of resistance. But if he has many equals, and some superiors in this line,

there is one in which he peculiarly and clearly excels all his cotemporaries in both houses, that is, in reply. He receives the attacks of his opponents frequently like an electric shock; and after haranguing for an hour rather dully, he rises a second time, and levels his adversary in a few words, either in a flow of keen satire, or the most sound and pointed argument. His lordship's voice is extremely disagreeable, his elocution still worse, and his manner execrably awkward. He is frequently tedious and unintelligible, abounds in useless repetitions, and scarcely ever places his emphasis with propriety, much less with grace."

This is a curious portrait, overdrawn in some points and too harsh in its general tone, but in the main correct. Lord North's administration stripped Britain of her American colonies; but it was not till the surrender of General Burgoyne, at Saratoga, that the minister's eyes were opened to the impolicy of the measures he had so long been pursuing towards the colonists. In the session of 1777, Lord North made some conciliatory efforts in the house of commons. He moved for "a bill for declaring the intentions of the parliament of Great Britain concerning the exercise of the right of imposing taxes within his majesty's colonies, provinces, and plantations in North America;" and a bill "to enable his majesty to appoint commissioners, with sufficient powers to treat, consult, and agree upon the means of quieting the disorders now subsisting in certain of the colonies, plantations, and provinces of North America." His lordship said, that it was intended to appoint five commissioners, and enable them to treat with the congress, as if it were a legal body, with any of the provincial assemblies upon their present constitution, or with any individuals in military or civil command. They were to have a power of suspending hostilities, granting pardons, and restoring all or any of the colonies to the form of their ancient constitution. Should the Americans now claim independence, they should not be required to renounce it, until the treaty had been ratified by the parliament of Great Britain; and if the Americans refused a moderate contribution towards the common defence of the empire when reunited, they should be warned that in that case they were not to look for support from it. The minister affirmed that all these concessions were consistent with his former opinions, and said that if the question were asked, why they had not been sooner proposed, he should reply, that the moment of victory, for which he had anxiously waited, seemed to him the only proper season for offering terms of concession. But though the result of the war had proved unfavourable, he would no longer delay the desirable and necessary work of reconciliation.<sup>17</sup>

<sup>17</sup> Miller.—"Never, perhaps, was the inexpressible absurdity of the ministerial system more apparent than at the present moment. The powers now granted were precisely of the nature of those with which it was the object of the motion made by the duke of Grafton, in the spring of 1775, to invest the former commissioners, Lord and General Howe. Had that motion been adopted, the contest might unquestionably have been, with the utmost facility, amicably and honourably terminated; but the general aspect of affairs since that period was totally changed. From the declaration of independence which America had once made, she could never be expected to recede. The strength of Great Britain had been tried, and found unequal to the contest. The measures adopted by the English government, particularly in the employment of German mercenaries and Indian savages, had inflamed the resentment of America to the highest pitch. Her recent successes had rendered it to the last degree improbable that she would ever again consent to recognise, in any shape, or under any modification, the authority of Britain. A treaty of peace, commerce, and alliance, was all that a

North continued in office until 1781, when, after the famous attempt at a coalition ministry, Pitt triumphed over both Fox and North. In 1790 he succeeded his father as Earl of Guildford. He took no active part in politics after this, and died on the 5th of August, 1792.

Lord North was an amiable man in private life; but his administration, in the words of Dr Bisset, "teemed with calamitous events, beyond any of the same duration to be found in our annals. The war with America lost us thirteen great and powerful colonies. Year after year, our blood and treasure were expended to no purpose; myriads of men were sacrificed; and hundreds of millions were lavished, without obtaining any valuable object. Temporary gleams of partial success were followed by the permanent gloom of general disaster. Yet the chief minister possessed very considerable talents and fair intentions, though mingled with defects, and acting in such emergencies as precluded beneficial exertions and consequences."

### Stuart, Marquess of Bute.

BORN A. D. 1713.—DIED A. D. 1792.

THIS nobleman, who, more by his private influence with the sovereign than by the force of his talents or the exercise of official power, so greatly influenced the political transactions of the former part of George the Third's reign, was born in 1713, and succeeded his father in the marquissate of Bute, in the ninth year of his age. In 1738 he married the only daughter of Lady Mary Wortley Montague.

In 1749, after an accidental interview with Frederick, prince of Wales, he was appointed lord of the bed-chamber to that prince, and soon acquired the entire confidence and friendship both of the prince and princess. We have already noticed the extraordinary influence which his lordship obtained over the mind of George III. while yet a boy. This influence was strengthened rather than diminished by the accession of that prince to the throne, and was maintained by his lordship throughout life. The first change in ministry after the new sovereign's accession was dictated and arranged by the favourite, who, on the 25th of March, 1761, became one of the secretaries of state in room of the earl of Holderness. Soon after, the same influence put an end to the brilliant and popular administration of Pitt, and on the 29th of May, 1762, Lord Bute was appointed first lord of the treasury.

His lordship's appointment could be little satisfactory to the country, nor indeed to any party in the state. He was instantly assailed with great violence by the political organs of the day, and especially by Wilkes in 'The North Briton,' the first number of which was published on the 5th of June. In his second number Wilkes laconically says: "I cannot conceal the joy I feel as a North Briton, and I heartily congratulate my dear countrymen on our having at length accomplished the great, long sought, and universally national object of all our wishes,

just and sound policy, in the present circumstances, could hope, or would endeavour to accomplish."—*Belsham*.

the planting a Scotsman at the head of the English treasury. I was indeed before very well-pleased with the conduct of the two other gentlemen at that board, who are likewise natives of our country (Elliot and Oswald,) but then they were obliged to serve under a noble duke of a peculiar cast, whose views were most evidently neither to enrich himself nor to aggrandize us. My joy and exultation are now complete, for I have lived to see my countryman, the earl of Bute, adorned with the most noble order of the Garter—which hath been given to us with so sparing a hand, and only for the most brilliant national services—and presiding over the finances of this kingdom. This is the post which the prime minister hath generally kept for himself, and is of the first importance in this country. It must ever be so in times of war, and above all in this wide-extended but glorious war, when nearly the sum of twenty millions will be this year raised on the subject;—though, I thank heaven, but a fortieth part of it will be paid by us.”

Bute's earliest efforts were directed towards a general peace. So strenuously did he pursue this object that it has been suspected he was bribed by the French cabinet. Fox, however, consented to take the lead in the commons in support of the peace. It was opposed by Pitt, and keen debates ensued.

The first article which the opponents of the peace attacked was that for the regulation of the cod-fishery. “At a time,” they said, “when Great Britain had not half so much right as at present to prescribe terms to her enemies, she only consented to give up one small island—that of St Pierre—as a shelter to the French fishing boats, and with indispensable restrictions. If these were deemed expedient in the cession of one island, they were doubly necessary in the cession of two. But nothing could justify the absolute unconditional surrender of St Pierre and Miquelon, which would enable France to recover her marine, and by degrees to acquire the best part of a fishery from which she ought to have been entirely excluded.” In reply to this, it was argued: “That France would never have agreed to a total dereliction of the fishery; that the cession, on her part, of the isles of Cape Breton and St John to England was more than an equivalent to the sheltering places of St Pierre and Miquelon, which she was not allowed to fortify, nor to keep any troops in, except such a number as were barely necessary to enforce the police.”

The restitution of the conquests made by the arms of Britain, particularly of those in the West Indies, was the object of the severest and most vehement censure. “The authors of such an infamous and improvident treaty,” said the opponents of administration, “seem to have lost sight of that great fundamental principle, that France is chiefly if not solely to be dreaded by us in the light of a maritime and commercial power. By the impolitic concessions made to her in the fishery, and by restoring all her valuable West India islands, we have put into her hands the means of repairing her prodigious losses, and of becoming once more formidable at sea. The fishery trained up an innumerable multitude of young seamen; and the West India trade employed them when they were trained. France,” they observed, “had long since gained a decided superiority over us in this lucrative branch of commerce, and supplied almost all Europe with the rich commodities which are produced only in that part of the world. By this commerce she

enriched her merchants, and augmented her finances ; whilst, from a want of sugar-land, which had been long known and severely felt by England, we at once lost the foreign trade, and suffered all the inconveniences of a monopoly at home." The concessions made to Spain, in the same part of the world, were represented as equally unjustifiable. "Florida," they maintained, "was no compensation for the Havannah. The Havannah was an important conquest. From the moment it was taken, all the Spanish treasures and riches in America lay at our mercy. Spain had purchased the security of all these, and the restoration of Cuba also, with the cession of Florida only. It was no equivalent. There had been a bargain ; but the terms were inadequate. They were inadequate in every point, where the principle of reciprocity was affected to be introduced." They represented the privilege obtained from Spain, in favour of our logwood-cutters, as too uncertain and precarious to be considered among the list of equivalents. Goree on the coast of Africa had been surrendered without the least apparent necessity ; in the East Indies, though the treaty mentioned an engagement for mutual restitution of conquests, the restitution was all on one side. We had conquered every thing, but retained nothing. In Europe, France had only one conquest to restore, Minorca ; and for this island, we had given her the East Indies, the West Indies, and Africa.

The advocates for the peace defended these concessions on the following grounds : "The original object of the war," said they, "was the security of our colonies on the continent of America. The danger to which these colonies were exposed, and the immense waste of blood and treasure which ensued to Great Britain, left no sort of doubt that it was not only our best, but our only policy, to guard against all possibility of the return of such evils. Experience had shown us, that while France possesses any single place in America whence she may molest our settlements, they can never enjoy repose ; and of course that we are never secure from being plunged again into those calamities from which we have at length and with so much difficulty emerged. To remove France from our neighbourhood in America, or to contract her power within the narrowest limits possible, was therefore the most capital advantage we could obtain, and was worth purchasing by almost any concession." Having, for these reasons, made large demands in North America, it was necessary to relax in other parts. France would never be brought to any very considerable cession in the West Indies : but her power and increase there could never become formidable, because the existence of her settlements depended upon ours in North America, whence they must be supplied with provisions. They did not deny the importance of the Havannah ; but they insisted upon the value of the objects which had been obtained in return for it. The whole country of Florida, with fort St Augustine and the bay of Pensacola, was far from being a contemptible acquisition. It extended the British dominions along the coast to the mouth of the Mississippi ; it removed an asylum for the slaves of the English colonies, who were continually making their escape to St Augustine ; it afforded a large extent of improvable territory, a strong frontier, and a good port in the bay of Mexico, both for the convenience of trade, and the annoyance of the Spaniards in any future contest. The liberty and security which the king of Spain engaged to afford to the English logwood-cutters was another material considera-



tion ; and though the fortifications on the coast were to be demolished, it did not appear by what other means a claim of such a peculiar nature could be adjusted. "We never," said they, "set up any pretensions to the territory, nor even directly to the produce ; but only a privilege of cutting and taking away this wood by indulgence. That privilege is now confirmed. What more, consistently with reason and justice, could we demand? The right of erecting fortifications would imply an absolute and exclusive dominion over the territory itself, to which we have not even the shadow of a claim. Had Great Britain fought for herself alone, and restricted her efforts to her own element, she might have assumed a more peremptory tone in dictating the terms of the treaty ; and if they were not acquiesced in, she might have resolved to keep all her conquests, and to prosecute hostilities to the full accomplishment of her wishes. But she was saddled with the protection of her allies ; and on their account, involved in a double continental war, the expense of which overbalanced all the advantages she could derive from the success of her arms. France and Spain had declared that without the restitution of the islands and the Havannah, peace could be of no service to them ; that they would rather hazard the continuance of the war—which, in the long run, must exhaust the finances and credit of England—and, in the meantime, would redouble their efforts to conquer Portugal, which it would not be in the power of the British auxiliaries to prevent." With respect to the other cessions, they thought the rock of Goree of very little consequence, while Great Britain retained the possession of Senegal. The article which related to the East Indies was perfectly agreeable to the wishes of the directors of the English company ; and did not afford all those advantages to France which might be imagined at first view. "If," said they, "we examine this matter closely, we shall find, that our late enemies have not gained much by having their factories and settlements restored to them : first, because the fortifications, erected at a vast expense in all those settlements, have been totally destroyed, and it cannot be expected, in the present situation of the French company, that they can, in the course of many years, if at all, rebuild them in the same manner. Besides, they are restrained by an express article from even making the attempt in the province of Bengal, and the kingdom of Orissa, or from keeping the least military force in either. Secondly, they have also agreed to acknowledge the reigning Subas of the chief provinces in the peninsula as the lawful sovereigns ; and these princes are all in our interest, as either owing the acquisition, or depending for the preservation of their power on our arms ; by which means our company is become, in effect, arbiter of that great and opulent coast, from the Ganges to Cape Comorin, and from the same Cape to the mouth of the Indus. What important sacrifices, then, have we made in the East Indies? And, while the points yielded by Great Britain in all other parts of the globe are so fully justifiable on the principles of sound and liberal policy, the most wilful perverseness will not dare to deny that in Europe the balance is considerably in her favour, the island of Minorca having been given her in exchange for Belleisle, besides obliging France to demolish the works belonging to the harbour of Dunkirk."

The premier carried his point by an overwhelming majority. In fact the nation itself was generally desirous of peace. Nor was the treaty in

reality a very disadvantageous one. Still Lord Bute was far from being popular. "He certainly at no time"—says the writer of an excellent series of papers on the changes of administration and history of parties in the 'Companion to the Newspaper'—"had any party in the country; and disclosures which have been since made would go to show, that he stood almost equally without support in the cabinet of which he appeared to be the head. He possessed the king's favour, and that seems to have been nearly the whole strength with which he attempted to wield the government. Every thing connected with him contributed to make him an object of dislike to the bulk of the nation,—his birth,—his pompous, haughty, and repulsive deportment,—his arbitrary politics,—the undeserved share he enjoyed of the king's confidence,—the rewards and honours which he had in this way secured to himself,—the absurd vanity and insolence of his attempt, without either commanding talents, or natural power, or influence of any other kind, to found, as it were, and build up a new system of government, in defiance alike of the whole peerage and the whole people, and with the aid of the prerogative alone. The feelings which were thus engendered waited only for an occasion on which to break out into a flame. This was afforded by a bill which was, in the course of the session, brought into parliament for imposing a tax upon cider, and subjecting the manufacture of that article to all the laws of the excise. Against this measure the opposition in parliament took their ground in the most determined spirit. That body had about this time become consolidated and strengthened by the union of its several sections; the leaders of which, in order to show the public their force, and the cordiality and concert with which they were disposed to act, agreed to dine together once a week at each other's houses. The first of these dinners was given by Lord Temple at his house in Pall Mall, about the end of February, 1763; the second by the duke of Newcastle in the beginning of March. Besides these two noblemen, the principal persons who were thus associated were, the dukes of Bolton, Devonshire, Grafton, and Portland, the marquess of Rockingham, the earls of Albemarle, Ashburnham, Besborough, Cornwallis, Hardwicke, Scarborough, and Spencer; Lords Abergavenny, Dacre, Fortescue, Grantham, Sondes, Walpole, and Villiers; Mr Pitt, Sir George Saville, Mr Charles Townshend, &c. Notwithstanding the opposition which it encountered at every step, the cider bill was carried through both houses. Except upon this single question, also, the ministerial majorities had yet suffered but little if any diminution. But while things were in this state, on the 8th of April, Lord Bute suddenly resigned. The true reasons which induced him to take this unexpected step are most probably those assigned by himself in a letter to a friend, which has been published by Mr Adolphus in his 'History of the Reign of George III.' 'Single,' he says in that letter, 'in a cabinet of my own forming—no aid in the house of lords to support me except two peers, (Denbigh and Pomfret,) both the secretaries of state silent, and the lord-chief-justice, whom I brought myself into office, voting for me, yet speaking against me—the ground I tread upon is so hollow, that I am afraid not only of falling myself, but of involving my royal master in my ruin. It is time for me to retire.' When the favourite retired from office, however, he probably did not retire from power, but continued, while lurking behind the throne, to be nearly as much prime minister as he had been while stand-

ing before it. His resignation at all events brought with it little immediate change either of measures or of men."

On the 3d of August, 1764, we find Horace Walpole writing: "The royal family reside chiefly at Richmond, whither scarce necessary servants attend them, and no mortal else but Lord Bute." Again, under date 9th September, he says: "The court, independent of politics, makes a strange figure. The recluse life led here at Richmond, which is carried to such an excess of privacy and economy, that the queen's friseur waits on them at dinner, and that four pounds only of beef are allowed for their soup, disgusts all sorts of people. The drawing-rooms are abandoned; Lady Buckingham was the only woman there on Sunday se'nnight. . . . In short, one hears of nothing but dissatisfaction, which, in the city, rises almost to treason." Again, on the 3d November: "Our politics are all at a stand. The duke of Devonshire's death, I concluded, would make the ministry all-powerful, all-triumphant, and all-insolent. It does not appear to have done so. They are, I believe, extremely ill among themselves, and not better in their affairs, foreign or domestic. The unpopularity of the court is very great indeed—still I shall not be surprised if they maintain their ground a little longer." On the 22d January, 1765, he writes: "Lord Bute and George Grenville are so ill together, that decency is scarce observed between their adherents; and the moment the former has an opportunity, or resolution enough, he will remove the latter."

Lord Bute did not again resume office from his retirement in April, 1763; but the above extracts sufficiently intimate the all-prevailing influence which continued to lead the sovereign's mind for some years at least after his lordship's professed retirement from public life. Lord Bute died on the 10th of March, 1792. He was warmly attached to literature, and patronized Dr Johnson and several of his literary contemporaries.

## Lieutenant-General Burgoyne.

BORN A. D. 1730.—DIED A. D. 1792.

THIS officer was a natural son of Lord Bingley. He entered the army at an early age, and while yet a very young man succeeded in gaining the affections of Lady Charlotte Stanley, daughter of the earl of Derby. This alliance secured his professional success.

In 1762 he accompanied the British troops, sent to the assistance of Portugal, under Lord Tyrawley. In this service he greatly distinguished himself. The Count de la Lippe formed a design of attacking an advanced party of Spaniards in a town on the frontiers, called Valencia d'Alcantara, where he heard they had amassed considerable magazines. The conduct of this enterprise was committed to Brigadier-general Burgoyne, who, though at a distance of five days' march, effected a complete surprise of the enemy on the morning of the 27th of August. He hoped to have reached the place the night before, and had made his dispositions for attack accordingly; but finding himself overtaken by day-light, he altered his plan, and advancing suddenly with his own dragoons and a small party of irregular cavalry at full

gallop, he entered the town of Valencia sword in hand, dispersed the guards that were in the great square, and secured the entrances with very little difficulty. The rest of his forces soon came up to support their gallant leader; and the Spanish general who was to have commanded in the intended invasion, and a great quantity of arms and ammunition fell into the hands of the victor, who brought away hostages for the care of the wounded, and the payment of the king's revenue for one year, in consideration of his having spared the town and convents. This important service was performed with very little loss on the part of the British troops; while the enemy had to lament the total destruction of one of the best regiments in the Spanish service. To prevent the entry of the Bourbon army into Alentejo was to the allies an object of the highest moment. General Burgoyne, by this expedition into the Spanish territories, had already prevented it on one side; and the vigilance and activity of the same officer had no small share in preventing it also on the other. That part of the Bourbon army which acted in the territory of Castel-Branco had made themselves masters of several important passes, and nothing remained but the passage of the Tagus to enable them to take up their quarters in Alentejo. General Burgoyne, who was posted with an intention to obstruct them in their passage, lay in the neighbourhood, and within view of a detached camp composed of a considerable body of their cavalry, near a village called Villa-Velha. Observing that the enemy kept no very soldierly guard in this post, and were uncovered in their rear and their flanks, he conceived a design of falling on them by surprise. He confided the execution of this design to Colonel Lee, who turned their camp, fell upon their rear in the night of the 6th of October, made a considerable slaughter, dispersed the whole party, destroyed their magazines, and returned with scarcely any loss. Burgoyne, in the mean time, supported him by a feint attack in another quarter, which prevented the enemy's being relieved from the adjacent posts.

In 1775 Burgoyne was appointed to a military command in North America. He returned to England the following year, and, after long conferences with the king and ministers, resumed his post in Canada in 1777. In the campaign of that year, Burgoyne's efforts were directed to the opening up of a communication between New York and Canada. For this service he had been furnished with upwards of 7000 regular troops, and an excellent train of artillery. The plan was that Burgoyne himself should advance, by way of Lake Champlain, upon Albany, or at least as far as might be necessary to effect a junction with Sir William Howe. A detachment was also to ascend the St Lawrence, as far as Lake Ontario, and from that quarter to penetrate towards Albany, by the Mohawk river. This was put under the command of Lieutenant-colonel St Leger. Burgoyne arrived in Quebec on the 6th of May, and on the 20th of June proceeded up Lake Champlain. At Crown Point he met the Indian auxiliaries, gave them a war-feast, and made a speech to them, well-calculated to excite them to take part with the royal army, but at the same time to repress their barbarity. At this place he issued orders, of which the following words are a part:—"The army embarks to-morrow to approach the enemy. The services required on this expedition are critical and conspicuous. During our progress occasions may occur, in which, nor difficulty, nor

labour, nor life, are to be regarded. This army must not retreat." From Crown Point the royal army proceeded to invest Ticonderoga. On their approach to it, they advanced with caution and order on both sides of the lake, while their naval force kept in its centre. Within a few days they had surrounded three-fourths of the American works at Ticonderoga and Mount Independence. In these circumstances General St Clair, the commanding officer, resolved to evacuate the post. The evacuation was completed with so much secrecy and expedition, that a considerable part of the public stores was saved, and the whole would have been embarked, had not a violent gale of wind which sprung up in the night prevented the boats from reaching their station. The British were no sooner apprized of the retreat of the Americans than they pursued them. General Frazer, at the head of the light troops, advanced on their main body. General Burgoyne in person conducted the pursuit by water. These efforts were all crowned with success, and the royalists cleared every thing before them as far as Skenesborough. From Skenesborough, Burgoyne directed his course across the country to Fort Edward on Hudson's river. Though the distance in a right line from the one point to the other is but a few miles, yet such is the impracticable nature of the country, and such were the artificial difficulties thrown in his way, that many days were consumed in effecting this march. The Americans, under the direction of General Schuyler had cut large trees on both sides of the road, so as to fall across with their branches interwoven. The face of the country was likewise so broken with creeks and marshes, that they had no less than forty bridges to construct, one of which was a log-work over a morass two miles in extent. This difficult march might have been avoided, had Burgoyne fallen back from Skenesborough to Ticonderoga, and thence proceeded by Lake George; but he declined this route, from an apprehension that a retrograde motion on his part would abate the panic of the enemy. At length, on the 30th of July, after incredible fatigue and labour, Burgoyne and the army under his command reached Fort Edward. A few days after the evacuation of Ticonderoga, General Schuyler had issued a proclamation, calling to mind the late barbarities and desolations committed by the royal army in Jersey, warning the people that they would be dealt with as traitors if they joined the British, and requiring them with their arms to repair to the American standard. Numerous parties were also employed in bringing off public stores, and in felling trees, and throwing obstructions in the way of the advancing royal army. The terror excited by the Indians, instead of disposing the inhabitants to court British protection, had a contrary effect. All the feeble aid which the royal army received from their Indian auxiliaries, was entirely overbalanced by the odium it brought on their cause, and by that determined spirit of opposition which the dread of their savage cruelties excited. An army was speedily poured forth from the woods and mountains, which hung around Burgoyne's troops, and impeded all their movements.

While Burgoyne was forcing his way down towards Albany, St Leger had ascended the St Lawrence, crossed Lake Ontario, and commenced the siege of Fort Schuyler. While the fate of Fort Schuyler was in suspense, it occurred to Burgoyne that a sudden and rapid movement forward would be of the utmost consequence. As the principal

force of his adversaries was in front, between him and Albany, he hoped, by advancing on them, to reduce them to the necessity of fighting, or of retreating into New England. After the evacuation of Ticonderoga, the Americans had fallen back from one place to another, till they at last reached Vanshaick's island. Soon after the retreating system was adopted, congress recalled their general officers, and put General Gates at the head of their northern army. His arrival gave fresh vigour to the exertions of the inhabitants. The militia collected in great numbers to his standard, and soon began to be animated with the hope of capturing the whole British army. When the necessary stores for thirty days' subsistence had been brought forward from Lake George, Burgoyne gave up all communication with the magazines in the rear, and on the 13th of September crossed Hudson's river. The rapid advance of Burgoyne, and especially his passage of the North river, added much to the impracticability of his future retreat, and in conjunction with subsequent events, made the total ruin of his army in a great degree unavoidable. General Burgoyne, after crossing the Hudson, advanced along its side, and in four days encamped on the heights, about two miles from General Gates' camp, which was three miles above Stillwater. The Americans came out to meet the advancing British, and engaged them with firmness and resolution. The attack began a little before mid-day, on the 19th of September, between the scouting parties of the two armies. The commanders on both sides reinforced their respective parties. The conflict was only partial for an hour and a half; but after a short pause it became general, and continued for three hours without intermission. Few actions have been characterised by more obstinacy in attack or defence; the British repeatedly tried the bayonet, but without their usual success in the use of that weapon. At length night put an end to the effusion of blood. This hard-fought battle decided nothing; but nevertheless was followed by important consequences. The Indian auxiliaries, disappointed of the plunder they expected, and beholding nothing before them but hardships and danger, began to desert in the season when their aid would have been most useful. Very little more perseverance was exhibited by the Canadians and other British provincials: they also abandoned the British standard, when they found that, instead of a flying and dispirited enemy, they had a numerous and resolute force opposed to them. These desertions were not the only disappointment which General Burgoyne experienced. From the commencement of the expedition, he had promised himself a strong reinforcement from that part of the British army which was stationed at New York; he depended on its being able to force its way to Albany, and to join him there, or in the vicinity. This co-operation, though attempted, failed in the execution, while the expectation of it contributed to involve him in difficulties to which he would not have otherwise been exposed. While Burgoyne was pushing on towards Albany, an unsuccessful attempt to relieve him was made by the British commander in New York. For this purpose, Sir Henry Clinton conducted an expedition up Hudson's river, of about 3000 men, accompanied by a suitable naval force; after making many feints he landed at Stoney Point, marched over the mountains to Fort Montgomery, and attacked the different redoubts. The reduction of this post furnished the British with an opportunity for opening a pass-

age up the North river; but instead of proceeding forward to Burgoyne's encampment, or even to Albany, they spent several days in laying waste the adjacent country. They might, in all probability, by pushing forward about 136 miles in six days, have brought Gates' army between two fires, at least twenty-four hours before Burgoyne's necessity compelled his submission to articles of capitulation. Why they neglected this opportunity has never yet been satisfactorily explained. Gates had posted 1400 men on the heights opposite the fords of Saratoga, 2000 more in the rear to prevent a retreat to Fort Edward, and 1500 at a ford higher up. Burgoyne, receiving intelligence of these movements, concluded, especially from the last, that Gates meant to turn his right. To avoid being hemmed in, he resolved on an immediate retreat to Saratoga. On his arrival at Saratoga, he found that the Americans had posted a considerable force on the opposite heights to impede his passage at that ford. The only practicable route which now remained, was by a night-march to Fort Edward. But before this attempt could be made, scouts returned with intelligence, that the Americans were intrenched opposite to the fords on the Hudson river, over which it was proposed to pass, and that they were also in force on the high ground between Fort Edward and Fort George. Their position extended nearly round the British, and was by the nature of the ground in a great measure secure from attack. The British were now invested by an army nearly three times its number, without a possibility of retreat or of replenishing its stock of provisions. In the mean time the American army was hourly increasing. Volunteers came in from all quarters, eager to share in the glory of destroying or capturing their enemies. The 13th of October at length arrived; but as no prospect of assistance appeared, and their provisions were nearly expended, General Burgoyne called a council of war, which comprehended both the field-officers and captains. Their unanimous opinion was, that their present situation justified a capitulation on honourable terms. A messenger was therefore despatched to General Gates, who, in the first instance, demanded that the royal army should surrender prisoners of war. He also proposed that the British should ground their arms. Burgoyne replied, "This article is inadmissible in every extremity; sooner than this army will consent to ground their arms in their encampment, they will rush on the enemy, determined to take no quarter." After various messages a convention was settled in the following terms:—"The troops under General Burgoyne to march out of their camp with the honours of war, and the artillery of the intrenchments, to the verge of the river, where the arms and artillery are to be left. The arms to be piled by word of command from their own officers. A free passage to be granted to the army under Lieutenant-general Burgoyne to Great Britain, upon condition of not serving again in North America during the present contest, and the port of Boston to be assigned for the entry of the transports to receive the troops whenever General Howe shall so order. The army under Lieutenant-general Burgoyne to march to Massachusetts bay by the easiest route, and to be quartered in, near, or as convenient as possible, to Boston. The troops to be provided with provision by General Gates' orders, at the same rate of rations as the troops of his own army. All officers to retain their carriages, bat-horses, and no baggage to be molested or

searched. The officers are not, as far as circumstances will admit, to be separated from their men. The officers to be quartered according to their rank. All corps whatever of Lieutenant-general Burgoyne's army to be included in the above articles. All Canadians, and persons belonging to the Canadian establishment, and other followers of the army, to be permitted to return to Canada, to be conducted to the first British post on Lake George, and to be supplied with provisions as the other troops, and to be bound by the same condition of not serving during the present contest. Passports to be granted to three officers to carry despatches to Sir William Howe, Sir Guy Carleton, and to Great Britain. The officers to be admitted on their parole, and to be permitted to wear their side arms." By this convention 5,790 men surrendered prisoners. The sick and wounded left in camp, when the British retreated to Saratoga, together with the numbers of the British, German, and Canadian troops, who were killed, wounded, or taken, and who had deserted in the preceding part of the expedition, were reckoned to be 4,689. The whole royal force, exclusive of Indians, was probably about 10,000. The stores which the Americans acquired were very considerable. In a short time after the convention was signed, Gates moved forward to stop the devastations of the British on the North river; but on hearing of the fate of Burgoyne, Vaughan and Wallace retired to New York. About the same time the British, which had been left in the rear of the royal army, destroyed their cannon, and abandoning Ticonderoga, retreated to Canada.<sup>1</sup>

On Burgoyne's return to England he frequently, but in vain, applied for a court-martial to investigate and pronounce upon his conduct at Saratoga; but the question of his surrender was brought in different shapes before parliament. On the day after Chatham had pronounced his eloquent reprobation of the system of employing the Indians as auxiliaries in the American struggle, the intelligence was received of Burgoyne's surrender. Chatham seized the crisis to move "that an address be presented to his majesty, to cause the proper officers to lay before the house copies of all orders and instructions to General Burgoyne, relative to the late expedition from Canada." Holding up a paper in view of the house, his lordship said that he had the king's speech in his hand, and a deep sense of the public calamity in his heart. That speech, he said, contained a most unfaithful picture of the state of public affairs; it had a specious outside, was full of hopes, while every thing within was full of danger. A system destructive of all faith and confidence had been introduced, his lordship affirmed, within the last fifteen years at St James's, by which pliable men, not capable men, had been raised to the highest posts of government. A few obscure persons had obtained an ascendancy where no man should have a personal ascendancy, and by the most insidious means the nation had been betrayed into a war of which they now reaped the bitter fruits. The spirit of delusion, his lordship said, had gone forth; ministers had imposed on the people; parliament had been induced to sanctify the imposition; a visionary phantom of revenue had been conjured up for the basest of purposes, but it was now for ever vanished. His lordship said, that the abilities of General Burgoyne were confessed, his

<sup>1</sup> Abridged from Miller's History.



personal bravery not surpassed, his zeal in the service unquestionable. He had experienced no pestilence, nor suffered any of the accidents which sometimes supersede the wisest and most spirited exertions of human industry. What then is the cause of his misfortune?—Want of wisdom in our councils, want of ability in our ministers. His lordship said, the plan of penetrating into the colonies from Canada was a most wild, uncombined, and mad project; and the mode of carrying on the war was the most bloody, barbarous, and ferocious, recorded in the annals of history. The arms of Britain had been sullied and tarnished by blending the scalping-knife and tomahawk with the sword and firelock. Such a mode of warfare was a contamination which all the waters of the Hudson and the Delaware would never wash away. It was impossible for America to forget or forgive so horrid an injury.

General Burgoyne was for some time in disgrace at court, particularly after his refusal to return to America in 1779; but he was ultimately restored to his rank in the army, and appointed head of the army in Ireland. He died in 1792. He was a man of considerable literary talent, and wrote some pieces for the stage.

### William Murray, Earl of Mansfield.

BORN A. D. 1705.—DIED A. D. 1793.

WILLIAM MURRAY, first earl of Mansfield, was the fourth son of David, earl of Stormont,<sup>1</sup> by Margery, daughter of Scot of Scotstarvet. He was born on the 2d of March, 1705, at Perth in Scotland.<sup>2</sup> His residence in Scotland, however, was but of short duration, he having been brought to London at the age of three years. He was first sent to Westminster school. At the age of fourteen he was admitted of that seminary as king's scholar. "During the time of his being at school," says one who was contemporary with him, "he gave early proofs of his uncommon abilities, not so much in his poetry as in his other exercises, and particularly in his declamations, which were sure tokens and prognostics of that eloquence which grew up to such maturity and perfection at the bar, and in both houses of parliament." At the election in May, 1723, he stood first on the Oxford exhibition list. He was entered of Christ's church in June that year. In the year 1727 he had taken the degree of B. A., and on the death of George I. was among those of the university who composed verses on that event. On the 26th of June, 1730, he took the degree of M. A., and probably soon afterwards left the university. Before he devoted himself

<sup>1</sup> In the memorial printed in 'The Secret History of Colonel Hooke's Negotiations in Scotland in favour of the Pretender, in 1707,' 8vo. 1760, this nobleman is thus described:—"Lord Stormont is turned of forty, and he is of the house of Murray. He is rich and powerful on the frontiers of England, and in the middle of Scotland. He is a man of great resolution, strict probity, and uncommon presence of mind." It appears also from the same memorial, that he had considerable weight with the malcontents in his native kingdom.

<sup>2</sup> The registry of his admission into Christ's college places his birth at Bath. Sir William Blackstone once mentioned this circumstance to Lord Mansfield, who said the mistake perhaps originated from the broad pronunciation of the person who gave in his name to the registrar.

to business, he made the tour of Europe. On his return he became a member of the society of Lincoln's inn, and was in due time called to the bar.

The fortune of our young lawyer at this period was rather slender; but he soon supplied any deficiency in that respect by his application and abilities. He does not appear to have proceeded in his profession in the way then usually adopted of labouring in the chambers of a special pleader, but started at once into practice at the bar, and very early acquired the notice of the chancellor and the judges, as well as the confidence of the inferior practitioners. The graces of his elocution, however, hurt him with a certain class of stupid people who would not believe that such bright talents could associate with the more solid attainments of the law, or that a man of genius and vivacity could be a profound lawyer. Pope, in allusion to this silly prejudice, writes :

“ The Temple late two brother-sergeants saw,  
Who deem'd each other oracles of law ;  
With equal talents these congenial souls,  
One lull'd the Exchequer, and one stunn'd the Rolls ;  
Each had a gravity would make you split,  
And shook his head at Murray as a wit.”

It is remarkable that this prejudice accompanied Lord Mansfield to the end of his judicial life, in spite of the daily proofs he gave in the court of king's bench and in the house of lords, of his profound knowledge of the abstrusest points of jurisprudence. Even Lord Chesterfield seems to have fallen into this unfounded opinion. In a letter to his son, dated February 12th, 1754, he says : “ The present solicitor-general, Murray, has less law than many lawyers ; but he has more practice than any, merely upon account of his eloquence, of which he has a never-failing stream.” The friendship which subsisted between Pope and our young lawyer also fostered this notion. That great poet entertained a particular affection for Murray, and was ever eager to show him marks of his regard. Bishop Warburton says, “ Mr Pope had all the warmth of affection for this great lawyer, and indeed no man ever more deserved to have a poet for his friend. In the obtaining of which as neither vanity, party, nor fear had a share, so he supported his title to it by all the offices of a generous and true friendship.” Ruffhead also declares that Pope had at one time an intention of leaving his house at Twickenham to his friend Murray, whose growing fame and rising station—which would render him superior to such a mansion—alone prevented him from carrying it into execution. In the fourth book of ‘ The Dunciad,’ Pope says, speaking of those whose poetical pursuits were diverted by law or politics :

“ How sweet an Ovid, Murray, was our boast !  
How many Martials were in Pulteney lost !”

And in his imitation of the first ode of the fourth book of Horace, he compliments him in the following lines addressed to Venus :

“ To number five<sup>a</sup> direct your doves,  
These spread round Murray all your blooming loves.

<sup>a</sup> The number of Lord Mansfield's chambers in Lincoln's inn.

Noble and young, he strikes the heart :  
 Equal the injured to defend,  
 With every sprightly, every decent part,—  
 To charm the mistress, or to fix the friend,—  
 He with an hundred arts refined,  
 Shall stretch thy conquests over half thy kind.  
 To him each rival shall submit.  
 Make but his riches equal to his wit ;  
 Then shall thy form the marble grace  
 (Thy Grecian form) and Chloe lend her face.  
 His house embosom'd in the grove,  
 Sacred to social life and social love,  
 Shall glitter o'er the pendent green,  
 Where Thames reflects the visionary scene ;  
 Thither the silver-sounding lyres  
 Shall call the smiling Loves and young Desires ;  
 There every Grace and Muse shall throng,  
 Exalt the dance and animate the song ;  
 There youths and nymphs in consort gay,  
 Shall hail the rising, close the parting day."

Whatever propensities, however, Lord Mansfield might have towards polite literature, he did not permit them to divert his attention from his profession. In the year 1736, the murder of Captain Porteus by a mob in Edinburgh, occasioned a bill of pains and penalties to be brought into parliament against the lord-provost and the city, which, after various modifications, and a firm and unabated opposition in every stage of its progress, passed into a law. In both houses Murray was employed by the city, and acquitted himself so much to the satisfaction of his clients, that some time after he was presented with the freedom of Edinburgh in a gold box.

In 1737 an opportunity presented itself, to which, in after life, he always recurred with pleasure, and from which period he dated his success. In the celebrated cause of Theophilus Cibber and Sloper, the leading counsel for the defendant was seized in court with sudden illness, and the conduct of the defence devolved upon Murray, the junior counsel, who managed it in so masterly a manner that the jury gave only £10 damages. The action being for criminal intercourse with the plaintiff's wife, it involved no abstruse points of law, and therefore was better fitted for the display of oratorical than legal ability. Business now poured in upon him on all sides ; and, from a few hundreds a-year, he found himself, in every subsequent year, in possession of thousands.

On the 20th of November, 1738, he married Lady Elizabeth Finch, daughter of Daniel, sixth earl of Winchelsea ; and in the month of November, 1742, was appointed solicitor-general, in the place of Sir John Strange, resigned.<sup>4</sup> He likewise was chosen to represent the town of

<sup>4</sup> On this occasion a doggrel poem was published by one Morgan, a person then at the bar, entitled 'The Causidicade,' in which all the principal lawyers were supposed to urge their respective claims to the post. At the conclusion it is said

" Then Murray, prepared with a fine panegyric  
 In praise of himself, would have spoke it like Garrick ;  
 But the president stopping him, said, ' As in truth  
 Your worth and your praise is in every one's mouth,  
 'Tis needless to urge what's notoriously known,  
 The office, by merit, is yours, all must own ;  
 The voice of the public approves of the thing,  
 Concurring with that of the court and the king.' "

Boroughbridge in parliament, for which place he was also returned in 1747 and 1754.

In the month of March, 1746-7, he was appointed one of the managers for the impeachment of Lord Lovat. It fell to his lot to observe on the evidence previous to the lords giving their judgment. This task he executed with so much candour, moderation, and gentlemanly feeling that Lord Talbot, at the conclusion of his speech, paid him the following compliment: "The abilities of the learned manager who just now spoke never appeared with greater splendour than at this very hour, when his candour and humanity have been joined to those great abilities which have already made him so conspicuous that I hope one day to see him add lustre to the dignity of the first civil employment in this nation." Lord Lovat himself also bore testimony to the abilities of his adversary: "I thought myself," says his lordship, "very much loaded by one Murray,<sup>5</sup> who, your lordships know, was the bitterest evidence there was against me: I have suffered by another Murray, who, I must say with pleasure, is an honour to his country, and whose eloquence and learning is much beyond what is to be expressed by an ignorant man like me. I heard him with pleasure, though it was against me. I have the honour to be his relation, though perhaps he neither knows that nor values it. I wish that his being born in the north may not hinder him from the preferment that his merit and learning deserve."

During the time Murray continued in office, he supported, with great ability, the administration with which he was connected; and rendered himself proportionally obnoxious to those who were in opposition. The principles of his family—in which we may presume him to have been educated—have been already noticed; and therefore it will create no surprise, that, in the confidence of friendly intercourse, or in a moment of exhilaration, he should have uttered sentiments which youth and inexperience only could palliate. In the year 1753 he got involved in a charge, which we shall relate in the words of Lord Melcombe.

"Messrs Fossett (Fawcett), Murray, and Stone, were much acquainted, if not school-fellows in early life. Their fortune led them different ways: Fawcett's was to be a country-lawyer and recorder of Newcastle. Johnson, now bishop of Gloucester, was one of their associates. On the day the king's birth-day was kept they dined at the dean of Durham's, at Durham; this Fawcett, Lord Ravensworth, Major Davison, and one or two more,—who retired after dinner into another room. The conversation turning upon the late bishop of Gloucester's preferments, it was asked who was to have his prebend of Durham: the dean said, that the last news from London was that Dr Johnson was to have it. Fawcett said he was glad that Johnson got off so well, for he remembered him a Jacobite several years ago, and that he used to be with a relation of his who was very disaffected, one Vernon, a mercer, where the Pretender's health was frequently drunk. This passing among a few familiar acquaintance was thought no more of at the time: it spread, however, so much in the North—how I never heard accounted for—and reached town in such a manner, that Mr Pelham thought it necessary to desire Mr Vane, who was a friend to Fawcett, and who employed him in his business, to write to Fawcett to know if he had said this of

<sup>5</sup> One of the evidences against him.

Johnson, and if he had, if it was true. This letter was written on the 9th of January; it came to Newcastle the Friday following. Fawcett was much surprised, but the post going out in a few hours after its arrival, he immediately acknowledged the letter by a long but not very explicit answer. This Friday happened to be the club-day of the neighbouring gentlemen at Newcastle. As soon as Lord Ravensworth, who was a patron and employer of Fawcett, came into the town, Fawcett acquainted him with the extraordinary letter he had received; he told him that he had already answered it; and being asked to show the copy, said he kept none; but desired Lord Ravensworth to recollect if he held such a conversation at the deanery of Durham the day appointed for the birth-day. Ravensworth recollected nothing at all of it: they went to the club together, and Ravensworth went the next morning to see his mother in the neighbourhood, with whom he staid till Monday; but this thing of such consequence lying upon his thoughts, he returned by Newcastle. He and Fawcett had another conversation, and in endeavouring to refresh each other's memory about this dreadful delinquency of Johnson, Fawcett said he could not recollect positively at such a distance of time whether Johnson drank those healths, or had been present at the drinking of them, but that Murray and Stone had done both several times. Ravensworth was excessively alarmed at this with relation to Stone, on account of his office about the prince; and thus the affair of Johnson was quite forgotten, and the episode became the principal part. There were many more conferences between Ravensworth and Fawcett upon this subject, in which the latter always persisted that Stone and Murray were present at the drinking, and did drink those healths. It may be observed here, that when he was examined upon oath, he swore to the years 1731 or 1732, at latest. Fawcett comes up as usual about his law-business, and is examined by Messrs Pelham and Vane, who never had heard of Murray or Stone being named:<sup>6</sup> he is asked, and answers only with relation to Johnson, never mentioning either of the others; but the love of his country, his king, and posterity burned so strongly in Ravensworth's bosom, that he could have no rest till he had discovered this enormity. Accordingly, when he came to town, he acquainted the ministry and almost all his great friends with it, and insisted upon the removal of Stone. The ministry would have slighted it as it deserved, but as he persisted and had told so many of it, they could not help laying it before the king, who, though he himself slighted it, was advised to examine it, which examination produced this most injudicious proceeding in parliament."<sup>7</sup>

So far Lord Melcombe's account. The same authority informs us, that Murray, when he heard of the committee being appointed to examine this idle affair, sent a message to the king, humbly to acquaint him, that if he should be called before such a tribunal on so scandalous

<sup>6</sup> This transaction, however, appears to have been no secret some years before, being alluded to in the following lines of a poem called 'The Processionade,' published in 1746:

" This new-fangled Scot, who was brought up at home,  
In the very same school as his brother at Rome,  
Kneel'd conscious, as though his old comrades might urge  
He had formerly drank to the king before George."

<sup>7</sup> Lord Melcombe's Diary.

and injurious an account, he would resign his office, and would refuse to answer. It came, however, before the house of lords, on the 22d January, 1753, on the motion of the duke of Bedford. "The debate was long and heavy," says Lord Melcombe. "The duke of Bedford's performance moderate enough. He divided the house, but it was not told, for there went below the bar with him the Earl Harcourt, Lord Townshend, the bishop of Worcester, and Lord Talbot only. The bishop of Norwich and Lord Harcourt both spoke, not to much purpose; but neither of them in the least supported the duke's question. Upon the whole," Lord Melcombe concludes, "it was the worst judged, the worst executed, and the worst supported point that I ever saw of so much expectation."

On the advancement of Sir Dudley Rider to the chief-justiceship of the king's bench, in 1754, Mr Murray succeeded him as attorney-general; and on his death, in 1756, again became his successor as chief-justice. He was sworn on the 8th of November, 1756, and took his seat on the bench on the 11th of the same month. The motto on his rings was 'Servate domum.' Immediately afterwards the great seal was put to a patent creating him Baron of Mansfield in the county of Nottingham.

As soon as Lord Mansfield was established in the king's bench he began to make improvements on the practice of that court. On the 12th of November, four days after he had taken his seat, he made a very necessary regulation, observing, "Where we have no doubt, we ought not to put the parties to the delay and expense of a farther argument; nor leave other persons, who may be interested in the determinations of a point so general, unnecessarily under the anxiety of suspense."<sup>8</sup> The regularity, punctuality, and despatch of the new chief-justice afforded such general satisfaction, that they, in process of time, drew into that court most of the causes which could be brought there for determination. Sir James Burrow says: "I am informed that at the sittings for London and Middlesex only, there are not so few as eight hundred causes set down a-year; and all disposed of. And though many of them, especially in London, are of considerable value, there are not more, upon an average, than between twenty and thirty ever heard of afterwards in the shape of special verdicts, special cases, motions for new trials, or in arrest of judgment. Of a bill of exceptions there has been no instance. I do not include judgments upon criminal prosecutions; they are necessary consequences of the convictions. My reports give but a very faint idea of the extent of the whole business which comes before the court: I only report what I think may be of use, as a determination or illustration of some matter of law. I take no notice of the numerous questions of fact which are heard upon affidavits—the most tedious and irksome part of the whole business. I take no notice of a variety of contestations, which, after being fully discussed, are decided without difficulty or doubt. I take no notice of many cases which turn upon a construction so peculiar and particular, as not to be likely to form a precedent for any other case. And yet, notwithstanding this immensity of business, it is notorious, that, in consequence of method, and a few rules which have been laid down to pre-

<sup>8</sup> Burrow's Reports, p. 5.

vent delay—even where the parties themselves would willingly consent to it—nothing now hangs in court. Upon the last day of the very last term, if we exclude such motions of the term as by desire of the parties went over of course as peremptories, there was not a single matter of any kind that remained undetermined, excepting one case relating to the proprietary lordship of Maryland, which was professedly postponed on account of the present situation of America. One might speak to the same effect concerning the last days of any former term for some years backward.”<sup>9</sup> So averse was Lord Mansfield to procrastination, that having once expressed his intention of proceeding with a certain matter on the Friday following, on being reminded by Sergeant Davy that it was Good Friday, he exclaimed, “Never mind,—the better day the better deed!” “Your lordship will do as you please,” responded the sergeant; “but if you do sit on that day, I believe you will be the first judge who did business on a Good Friday since Pontius Pilate.” The same author also informs us, after reporting the famous case of *Perrin and Blake*, that it was remarkable, that, excepting that case, and another in the same volume on literary property, there had not been, from the 6th of November, 1756, to the time of his then present publication, 26th of May, 1776, a final difference of opinion in the court in any case, or upon any point whatsoever. “It is remarkable, too,” he adds, “that, excepting these two cases, no judgment given during the same period has been reversed, either in the exchequer-chamber or in parliament; and even these reversals were with great diversity of opinion among the judges.”<sup>10</sup>

In the next year the ill-success of the war then begun occasioned a change in the administration, and the conflicts of contending parties rendered it impracticable for the crown, at that juncture, to settle a new ministry. In order, therefore, to give pause to the violence of both sides, Lord Mansfield was induced to accept the post of chancellor of the exchequer, on the 9th of April, 1757, which he held until the 2d of July in the same year. This year he was offered, but refused, the office of lord-high-chancellor.

For several years after this period the tenor of Lord Mansfield's life was marked only by the most sedulous discharge of the duties of his office. In 1760 George II. died, and the new reign commenced with alterations in the administration which gave rise to a keen spirit of political rivalry, in which Mansfield had his share. We find him, in the spring of 1766, for the first time since his taking his seat in the house of lords, separated from administration, and opposing the measures which were supposed to be conducted by the marquess of Rockingham, then at the head of the treasury. The question on which his lordship and several others, not supposed to be inimical to the general measures of government, differed from the ministry, was the propriety of the repeal of the stamp act. The celebrated protest which followed the repeal, was said to have been drawn up under his lordship's immediate inspection, and was looked upon at the time as one of the most able performances, in that way, ever entered in the records of parliament. In 1767 we find him supporting the port-duties, proposed in the other house by the chancellor of the exchequer. In 1770 we again find him support-

<sup>9</sup> Burrow's Reports, p. 2533.

<sup>10</sup> Ibid. p. 2582.

ing the partial repeal of those duties, and continuing the duty on tea. His lordship disapproved of the repeal of the stamp act, because he looked upon it to be a tacit relinquishing of the supreme authority of this country over America. The other parts of his political conduct seem to have rather proceeded from a uniform support of government, than any particular sentiments of his own, unless connected with the system pursuing towards America. Among the latter were all the bills of coercion against America. Those several measures he defended, as they presented themselves, so ably, and in some instances so very minutely, as to enter into the defence of the grammatical construction of several of the clauses; hence his opponents frequently charged him with being the original framer and father of them; but this we cannot by any means suppose, his lordship having repeatedly disclaimed in debate the least previous knowledge of their contents, or of having attended the business of the cabinet for a considerable time before the period here adverted to.

The year 1770 was also memorable for various attacks made on his lordship's judicial character, both in the houses of lords and commons. In one of these the propriety of a direction<sup>11</sup> given to the jury in the case of the King against Woodfall was keenly and successfully called in question by Lord Camden.

On the 19th of October, 1776, his lordship was advanced to the dignity of an earl of Great Britain, by the title of Earl of Mansfield, with descent to his male issue; and for want of such issue, to Louisa, Viscountess Stormont, and to her heirs male by David, Viscount Stormont, her husband. The same title, in 1792, was limited to Lord Stormont himself, who afterwards succeeded to it.

We come now to a period of his lordship's life in which an event occurred disgraceful to the age and country. An union of folly, enthusiasm, and knavery, had excited an apprehension in the minds of some weak people, that encouragements were secretly given to the favourers and professors of the Roman Catholic faith, inconsistent with the safety of the Protestant religion and true policy. The act of parliament which principally excited this clamour had passed with little opposition, and had not received any extraordinary support from Lord Mansfield; but the mind of the public was inflamed by artful misrepresentations, and the rage of a popular mob was easily directed against some eminent persons. In the night between Tuesday the 6th, and Wednesday the 7th of June, 1780, his lordship's house, in Bloomsbury-square, was attacked by a party of rioters, who, on the Friday and Tuesday preceding, had, to the amount of many thousands, surrounded the avenues of both houses of parliament, under pretence of attending Lord George Gordon when he presented the petition from the Protestant association. On Tuesday evening the prison of Newgate had been thrown open, all the combustible part reduced to ashes, and the felons let loose upon the public. It was after this attempt to destroy the means of securing the objects of criminal justice, that the rioters assaulted the residence of the chief-magistrate of the first criminal court in the kingdom; nor were they dispersed till they had burned all the

<sup>11</sup> This celebrated opinion is printed at large in Debrett's Parliamentary Debates, vol. v. p. 363.



furniture, pictures, books, manuscripts, deeds, and, in short, every thing which fire could consume, in his lordship's house; so that nothing remained but the walls. On Wednesday the devastation became almost general throughout London. That evening the Fleet and King's bench prisons were also set on fire; and the bank of England, the inns of court, and almost all the public buildings were threatened with destruction.

This daring outrage on order and government burst on Lord Mansfield without his being prepared in the slightest manner to resist it. He escaped with his life only, and retired to a place of safety, where he remained until the 14th of June, the last day of term, when he again took his seat in the court of king's bench. "The reverential silence," says Mr Douglas, "which was observed when his lordship resumed his place on the bench, was expressive of sentiments of condolence and respect more affecting than the most eloquent address the occasion could have suggested." The amount of that part of Lord Mansfield's loss which might have been estimated, and was capable of a compensation in money, is known to have been very great. This he had a right to recover against the Hundred. Many others had taken that course, but his lordship thought it more consistent with the dignity of his character not to resort to the indemnification provided by the legislature. His sentiments on the subject of a reparation from the state were communicated to the board of works, in a letter dated 18th of July, 1780, written in consequence of an application which they had made to him, as one of the principal sufferers, pursuant to directions from the treasury, founded on a vote of the house of commons, requesting him to state the nature and amount of his loss. In that letter, after some introductory expressions of civility to the surveyor-general, to whom it was addressed, his lordship says, "Besides what is irreparable my pecuniary loss is great. I apprehended no danger, and therefore took no precaution. But, how great soever that loss may be, I think it does not become me to claim or expect reparation from the state. I have made up my mind to my misfortune, as I ought; with this consolation, that it came from those whose object manifestly was general confusion and destruction at home, in addition to a dangerous and complicated war abroad. If I should lay before you any account or computation of the pecuniary damage I have sustained, it might seem a claim or expectation of being indemnified; therefore you will have no further trouble upon this subject." It has been supposed that he held his office after he was disabled from executing the duties of it, from a wish to secure the succession to it of a very particular friend: be this as it may, the chief-justice continued his office until the month of June, 1788, when he sent in his resignation. From this period the bodily powers of his lordship continued to decline; his mental faculties, however, remained without decay almost to the last. He lived just long enough to express his satisfaction at the check given to the French by Prince Cobourg, in March, 1792, on the 20th of which month, after continuing some days in a state of insensibility, he departed this life at the age of 88 years.

"In his political oratory," says a writer of his own times, "he was not without a rival, but no one had the honour of surpassing him; and let it be remembered that his competitor was Pitt. The rhetorician

that addressed himself to Tully in these memorable words,—‘*Demosthenes tibi præripuit, ne primus esses orator, tu illi ne solus*’—anticipated their application to Mansfield and Pitt. If the one possessed Demosthenian fire and energy, the other was at least a Cicero. Their oratory differed in species, but was equal in merit. There was at least no superiority on the side of Pitt. Mansfield’s eloquence was not indeed of that daring, bold, declamatory kind, so irresistibly powerful in the momentary bustle of popular assemblies; but it was possessed of that pure and attic spirit, and seductive power of persuasion, that delights, instructs, and eventually triumphs. It has been very beautifully and justly compared to a river, that meanders through verdant meads and flowery gardens, reflecting in its crystal bosom the varied objects that adorn its banks, and refreshing the country through which it flows.” Bishop Warburton says, that during Mansfield’s administration, “the stream of justice ran pure as from its own celestial source,—purer than Plato dared to conceive it even in his feigned republic.” “Lord Mansfield,” says Hurd, “was looked up to and admired as the Cicero of the age; yet he was never much relished by some of the old lawyers, who boldly asserted, that, if his innovations were to be freely adopted, they might shut up their long revered law-authorities; and, in compliment to his lordship, merely adhere to the decisions that were contained in ‘Burrow’s Reports.’ He was, it is said, applied to by the late Mr Owen Ruffhead, for materials to compose an account of his life, but modestly replied that his life was not of sufficient importance to be written. ‘If,’ added he to the applicant, ‘you wish to write the life of a truly great man, write the life of Lord Hardwicke; who, from very humble means, and without family support and connections, became lord-high-chancellor of England, on account of his virtue, his talents, and his diligence.’ ”

His memory was astonishing; he never took notes, or, if he did, seldom or never consulted them; yet his references to expressions which fell from him in the course of debate, or his quotations from books, were so faithful that they might have been said to have been repeated *verbatim*.

“His genius,” says another contemporary, “is comprehensive and penetrating; and, when he judges it necessary, he pours forth sounds the most seductive, equally calculated to persuade and to convince. Among his more rare qualifications may be added the external graces of his person, the piercing eye, the fine-toned voice and harmonious elocution, and that happy arrangement which possesses all the accuracy and elegance of the most laboured compositions.” The weight he had in the house of lords may be conjectured from what Horace Walpole says in one of his letters: “The third day was a scene of confusion and folly; for when Lord Mansfield is absent, ‘Lost is the nation’s sense, nor can be found.’ ”

Dr Smollett, noticing the supporters of Mr Pelham’s administration, mentions Murray as entitled to the first place in point of genius. “This gentleman,” he continues, “the son of a noble family in North Britain, had raised himself to great eminence at the bar by the most keen intuitive spirit of apprehension, that seemed to seize every object at first glance; an innate sagacity that saved the trouble of intense application; and an irresistible stream of eloquence, that flowed pure and classical,

strong and copious, reflecting, in the most conspicuous point of view, the subject over which it rolled, and sweeping before it all the slime of formal hesitation, and all the entangling weeds of chicanery."<sup>12</sup> Lord Mansfield's title of earl descended to his nephew, David, Viscount Stormont, and, at his death, to his son David William, third earl.

## William, Viscount Barrington.

DIED A. D. 1793.

THIS nobleman was the son of John, first Viscount Barrington. He commenced his political career in the year 1740, when he entered parliament as representative for the town of Berwick. He immediately attached himself to the opposition party, and shared their triumph over Walpole in the following year. On the formation of the Pelham party, he became a supporter of government, and was appointed a lord of the admiralty. When the duke of Newcastle became premier, Lord Barrington was made secretary-at-war. In March, 1761, on the dismissal of Mr Legge, he was appointed chancellor of the exchequer. When, in May 1762, Lord Bute was appointed first lord of the treasury, Viscount Barrington was removed to the treasurership of the navy, which had been filled by George Grenville, and was succeeded in the exchequer by Sir Francis Dashwood. Lord Barrington held the navy treasurership till the year 1765, when, under Pitt, he again became secretary-at-war, in which office he continued till the time of his final retirement from public life in 1778. He died in 1793.

Lord Barrington appears to have been a man of good business habits and respectable talents. That he managed to keep so long in office during a period which witnessed the overthrow of so many successive administrations, is rather a suspicious circumstance; yet he appears, by the testimony of almost all his contemporaries, to have been a thoroughly upright and conscientious man. The following letter to General Conway affords strong testimony to the integrity of his lordship's official conduct: "When I first came to the war office I made a resolution from which I have never departed in one instance, and from my adherence to which the greatest benefits have arisen to his majesty's service. This resolution was, never to recommend to the king any surgeons of regiments, or of the army hospitals, but such as should be recommended to me by the physicians and chief surgeons of the army, who constitute what I call the hospital board. My instructions to them are, always to recommend to me on vacancies, not only good and able people, but the very best and ablest they can find; regard being had, where merit is equal, to such as have served in lower stations, either as mates in hospitals or in regiments. I verily believe they have complied with these directions; because though I have often heard great commendations, I have never heard the least blame of any medical people recommended by them; notwithstanding I have frequently been obliged—always unwillingly—to put their colonels out of humour by refusing the people

<sup>12</sup> A few years afterwards Dr Smollett again drew the character of Lord Mansfield in the 'Adventures of an Atom,' in terms very different from the above.

whom they have recommended. I have gone farther, having refused, in more instances than one, the recommendations of the commander-in-chief; and even of the duke of Newcastle, to whom I owe more compliance than to any man living; because he is the only subject to whom I have a real obligation. I must do his grace the justice to say that, after the first warmth was over, he has always approved my rule, and the steadiness with which I adhered to it. Forgive me, my dear general, that I cannot, in this instance, show the same regard to your recommendation, as in the instance of Mr Bourke, lately appointed a cornet in your regiment at your desire. The two cases, give me leave to say, are widely different. None but medical men can judge of medical men; and, in my opinion, it would be as preposterous to take the character of a surgeon from a colonel, as of an officer from the hospital board. As to breaking my rule in this instance and keeping it in others, I am sure upon consideration you will not adhere to that advice; for I should then give real offence to all those whom I have refused already, or shall refuse hereafter. If I have ever given any satisfaction in the troublesome and delicate station I am in, it has arisen from making no exceptions to general rules. It is with great difficulty that I am steady at present; but this advantage will arise from a very disagreeable thing: no colonel can ever expect I should take his recommendation of a surgeon, when I have refused General Conway's."

There is still stronger testimony of his inflexible adherence to this excellent rule in his correspondence with Lord Ligonier, and the marquess of Granby. A letter to the former—at that time commander-in-chief—concludes thus: "I have not time to answer your lordship's letter of Sunday, which I received last night: perhaps it is better that I should not particularly answer it, as I wish always to keep my temper, especially with those who are older and wiser than myself. I will only say, that whatever the power of a commander-in-chief may be, it certainly does not extend to make a secretary-at-war give the king advice which he thinks wrong. I told your lordship very explicitly at our first outset, that I never would. I have refused in a like case the only man living to whom I have an obligation, and he is not offended. I wonder I am pressed to do it by your lordship. If you think these alterations in the German hospital to be right, you will propose them to the king. If his majesty, after hearing my objections, shall be of your lordship's opinion, I will obey his orders with the same cheerfulness, and do all other business with the same good humour, as if he had declared for mine. I have no points to carry, and should blush at a triumph."

### Charles Pratt, Earl Camden.

BORN A. D. 1713.—DIED A. D. 1794.

Few men have such strong claims to the gratitude and admiration of his countrymen as the noble and illustrious character whose life and political merits we are now about to sketch.

Charles Pratt was the third son of Sir John Pratt, chief-justice of the court of King's bench under George I. by his second wife, Elizabeth,

daughter of the Rev. Hugh Wilson, canon of Bangor. He was born in 1713, the year before his father was raised to the bench. He received the first rudiments of his education at Eton, and afterwards studied at King's college: he was remarkably diligent and studious, and particularly versed in the history and constitution of his country. After taking his master's degree in 1735, he entered himself a student of the Inner temple, and was in due time admitted to the bar.

Mr Pratt, after being called to the bar, notwithstanding his family connexions and his own personal character, was nearly nine years in the profession without getting in any degree forward. Whether this arose from a natural timidity of constitution, or ill-luck, or despondence, it is now difficult to tell, but the fact was so; and he was so dispirited by it, that he had some thoughts of relinquishing the profession of the law, and retiring to his college, where he might be sure of a church living, that would afford him a small but honourable independence.<sup>1</sup> Brooding over these melancholy thoughts he went as usual the Western circuit, resolving to make one more experiment, and then take his final determination. He had, from his first setting out in his profession, been very intimate with Mr Henley, afterwards Lord Northampton, and lord-high-chancellor of England,—a man who, with the talents of wit and conversation, was esteemed a good lawyer and capable of strong and lasting friendship. Henley, at this time, was rising rapidly at the bar, and was concerned in most of the great causes on the circuit. He was the *'amicus omnium horarum'* of Pratt; but knew nothing of the embarrassments of his friend's affairs, till the other, availing himself of a leisure hour, confided his cares to him with all the frankness and unreservedness of an old and intimate colleague. Henley heard him throughout with a seeming and anxious composure, and then burst out into a horse-laugh, exclaiming in his strong manner: "What! turn parson at last! No, Charles; you sha'n't be a priest neither! You shall do better for yourself; and that quickly too. Let me see,—I'm concerned in a cause that will suit you to a hair,—you shall be concerned in it too,—it is on the popular side, and will do you credit. So let me hear no more of this canting business of turning parson: you have abilities that run before us all, but you must endeavour to scour off a little of that d—ned modesty and diffidence you have about you, to give them fair play." In this rough familiar manner Henley rallied the spirits of his friend; and he followed up his advice with sagacity and cordiality. When his client's attorney called upon him to arrange the particulars of the cause, he asked him whether he had retained Pratt? "Pratt! Pratt!" said the attorney, "who is Mr Pratt?" "Who is Mr Pratt, Sir!" said Henley gravely, "the question shows you to be a country attorney, or you should know better. Go to him directly and engage him, as I would not have a man of his abilities against me on any consideration." The attorney did as he was directed, and Mr

<sup>1</sup> Mr Pratt's case was by no means singular even in his own day. Some of the greatest luminaries of the law in his time passed through the same ordeal. Sir Fletcher Norton, afterwards Lord Grantley, was some years before he got into notice. Mr Dunning, afterwards Lord Ashburton, received but twenty guineas the first year, and for three years afterwards did not get above one hundred pounds. Sir George Hay, no less a civilian than a man of fine general talents, was for three or four years in so little practice as to be scarcely able by his profession to keep up the port of a gentleman.

Pratt was retained in the cause. Henley was taken ill upon the day of trial, and Mr Pratt took the lead, and won the admiration of his brother barristers and the whole court by the display he made. In short, the issue of that day's trial was, that besides gaining his cause, he gained the reputation of an eloquent, profound, and constitutional lawyer.

When Pratt returned to London, he found the bruit of his professional fame—which his friend Henley took care to cultivate by all the good offices in his power—had reached the metropolis before him. The second great event which called out his professional talents, and placed his fame on that basis which rendered it marked and permanent, and for ever after shielded and protected it from neglect and insecurity, was the celebrated case of Owen the bookseller, for publishing 'A Defence of Alexander Murray, Esq.,' 1751. In the contested election between Lord Wenman and Sir James Dashwood on one side, and Lord Parker and Sir Edward Turner on the other, Mr Pratt was counsel for the former, and distinguished himself in a manner that not only elevated his character as a lawyer, but marked him out as an able defender of the constitutional rights of his country. Mr Pitt was the 'auditor tantum' of this celebrated contest. But charmed with the eloquence, the professional skill, and the integrity of his new friend, he gave him his unreserved confidence, and from this hour they were the Pylades and Orestes of their time. With these warm professions in favour of his friend, when Mr Pitt came to be appointed secretary of state, in 1756, he appointed Mr Pratt his private counsellor, with a handsome salary, in order, as that great man declared, "not only to have the benefit of such advice, but to guard against any inroads which he otherwise might unintentionally make on the laws and constitution of his country." In 1757 Mr Pratt was made attorney-general in the room of Sir Robert Henley, made lord-keeper. Mr Pitt jocosely played upon the temper of his friend on this occasion, by telling him he was appointed attorney-general. "Not for the world, Sir," said he, "to the prejudice of my oldest and best friend, Henley!" "Well, but suppose we kick this old friend of yours up to the house of lords, will that do? In fact, the thing is so, Henley is made lord-keeper, and I wish you joy most sincerely of your new appointment of attorney-general." From the office of attorney-general Mr Pratt ascended the bench, being appointed lord-chief-justice of the court of common pleas in 1762, after having been chosen representative for Downton, Wiltshire, in 1759, and made recorder of Bath the same year. Writing to his friend Dr Davies at this period, he says: "I remember you prophesied formerly that I should be a chief-justice, or perhaps something higher. Half is come to pass: I am thane of Cawdor; but the greater is behind, and if that fails me, you are still a false prophet. Joking aside, I am retired out of this bustling world to a place of sufficient profit, ease, and dignity, and believe that I am a much happier man than the highest post in the law could have made me."

In his judicial capacity he manifested great independence and impartiality. In 1763, when John Wilkes, after having been conveyed to the Tower, on a general warrant, was brought up, by virtue of a writ of *habeas corpus*, the chief-justice discharged him; it being his opinion, as he subsequently stated, on the trial of an action brought by Wilkes against the messenger who had arrested him, that general warrants,

excepting in cases of high treason, were illegal. When Wilkes was brought up before the court, the lord-chief-justice Pratt, in delivering the resolution of the court, which was unanimous, said: "When this return was read, my brother Glynne, counsel for Mr Wilkes, made two objections to it; and though these should fail him, he insisted that Mr Wilkes, from the nature of his particular station and character, as being a member of the house of commons, was entitled to privilege of parliament, and ought, for that reason alone, to be discharged from his present imprisonment. To begin with the objections,—the first was, that it did not appear by the warrant that Mr Wilkes stood charged upon any evidence with being the author of the libel described in the warrant. The true question arising upon this objection is, whether stating the evidence be essential to the validity of the warrant? and upon this point we are all clearly of opinion that the warrant is good." Having stated the reasons of this opinion, his lordship went on to say: "The other objection was, that the libel itself ought to be set forth *in hæc verba*; but upon that point too we are all of opinion that the warrant is good. It was urged that the specific cause of the detention ought to be stated with certainty, and therefore if a man be committed for felony, the warrant must briefly mention the species of felony. Now the species of every offence must be collected by the magistrate out of the evidence; but he is not bound to set forth the evidence, he is answerable only for the inference he deduces from it. As to a libel, the evidence is partly internal and partly external. The paper itself may not be complete and conclusive evidence; for it may be dark and unintelligible without innuendoes, which are the external evidence. There is no other name but that of libel applicable to the offence of libelling, and we know the offence specifically by that name, as we know the offences of horse-stealing, forgery, &c. by the names which the law has annexed to them. But two reasons were urged why the libel ought to be stated. First, it was said without it the court cannot judge whether it be a libel or not: the answer is, that the court ought not in this proceeding to give any judgment of that sort, as it would tend to prejudication, and take away the office of a jury, and to create an improper influence. The other reason was, that unless the libel be stated, the court cannot be able to determine on the quantity of bail: the answer here is, that regard to the nature of the offence is the only rule in bailing." "But then," continued his lordship, "there remains to be considered, whether Mr Wilkes ought not to be discharged. The king's counsel have thought fit to admit that he was member of the house of commons, and we are bound to take notice of it. In the case of the seven bishops, the court took notice of their privilege, from their description in the warrant. In the present case there is no suit depending; here no writ of privilege can therefore issue,—no plea of privilege can be received,—it rests, and must rest, on the admission of the counsel for the crown; it is fairly before us upon that admission, and we are bound to determine it." Having quoted cases, his lordship went on: "What then is the present case? Mr Wilkes, a member of the house of commons, is committed for being the author and publisher of an infamous and seditious libel. Is a libel *ipso facto* in itself an actual breach of the peace? Dalton in his 'Justice of the Peace,' defines a libel as 'a thing tending to the breach of the peace.' In Sir Baptist Hick's case it is call-

ed a provocation to a breach of the peace. In the *King against Summers*, it was held to be an offence conusable before justices, because it tended to a breach of the peace. In Hawkins' *'Pleas of the Crown,'* it is called 'a thing directly tending to a breach of the public peace.' Now, that that which only tends to a breach of the peace is not an actual breach of it, is too plain a proposition to admit of argument. But if it was admitted that a libel was a breach of the peace, still privilege cannot be excluded, unless it require surety of the peace, and there has been no precedent but that of the seven bishops cited to show that sureties of the peace are requirable from a libeller. As to the opinion of the three judges in that case, it only serves to show the miserable state of justice in those days. Allybone, one of the three, was a rigid and professed papist; Wright and Holloway, I am much afraid, were placed there for doing jobs; and Powell, the only honest man upon the bench, gave no opinion at all. Perhaps it appears an absurdity to demand sureties of the peace from a libeller. However, what was done in the case of the seven bishops I am bold to deny was law. Upon the whole, though it should be admitted that sureties of the peace are requirable from Mr Wilkes, still his privilege of parliament will not be taken away till sureties have been demanded and refused.—Let him be discharged." Thus far as to the point of privilege. Mr Wilkes after his liberation, it is well-known, complained to the house of commons of a breach of privilege, by the imprisonment of his person; and commenced an action in the court of common-pleas against Robert Wood, Esq. the under secretary of state, for seizing his papers. On the 26th of December, 1763, this cause was tried before the lord-chief-justice and a special jury, at the defendant's desire; when, after a hearing of nearly fifteen hours, a verdict was given for Mr Wilkes, with one thousand pounds damages, and full costs of suit. On this occasion the lord-chief-justice closed his charge to the jury in the following words: "This warrant is unconstitutional, illegal, and absolutely void. It is a general warrant directed to four messengers to take up any persons without naming or describing them with any certainty, and to bring them, together with their papers. If it be good, a secretary of state can delegate and depute any one of the messengers, or any even from the lowest of the people to take examinations, to commit or release, and in fine to do every act which the highest judicial officers the law knows can do or order. There is no authority in our law books, that mentions these kind of warrants, but in express terms condemn them." "Upon the maturest consideration," his lordship continued, "I am bold to say that this warrant is illegal. But I am far from wishing a matter of this consequence should rest solely upon my opinion; I am only one of twelve, whose opinions I am desirous should be taken in this matter, and I am very willing to allow myself the meanest of the twelve. There is also a still higher court before which this matter might be canvassed; and whose determination is final. If these higher jurisdictions should declare my opinions erroneous, I submit, as will become me, and kiss the rod; but I must say, I shall always consider such a state of the law a rod of iron for the chastisement of the people of Great Britain."

The popularity which the chief-justice acquired by his decided and constitutional opinion on general warrants spread far and near. The city of London presented him with the freedom of the corporation in a



gold box, and voted that his portrait, painted by Sir Joshua Reynolds, should be placed in Guildhall. The corporations of Bath, Dublin, Exeter, and Norwich, followed the example. Songs were sung at all the patriotic meetings, as well as in the streets, in honour of his spirit and integrity; and toys, handkerchiefs, &c. bore the effigies of this defender of the rights of the constitution.

In 1765, on the establishment of Lord Rockingham's administration, the chief-justice of the common-pleas was created a baron of Great Britain, by the name of Baron Camden of Camden-place, in the county of Kent, with remainder to his heirs male. On the 30th of July, 1766, when Pitt was created Earl of Chatham, and appointed lord-privy-seal, Lord Camden was called to the office of lord-high-chancellor of Great Britain, in the room of the earl of Northington; and though there were some promotions in this change of administration which augured a return of the Butean influence, yet the tried and well-known character of Lord Camden was such as to give universal satisfaction.

The high price of corn and every other species of provision in the summer of 1766, caused great and general complaints throughout every part of the kingdom. These complaints were followed by riots and tumults, in which great excesses were committed. The privy-council issued a proclamation, putting in force several statutes that had been formerly passed against forestallers, regrators, and engrossers of corn. But the price of wheat still advanced, and another proclamation was issued on the 26th of September to prohibit the exportation of grain. Messengers were despatched to the sea-coasts to see that the terms of the proclamation were complied with, and to prevent such ships as were laden with wheat or wheat-meal at the several ports, from proceeding with their respective cargoes. When parliament met at the close of the year, the ministry brought in a bill of indemnity for this measure, which was violently denounced by some members. The lord-chancellor defended it with his usual ability. He cited the opinion of Mr Locke and a number of other high authorities, and asserted that it was ridiculous to suppose any state without a power of providing for the public safety in cases of emergency; that this power must be lodged in all states somewhere, and that in ours it was lodged in the king. He maintained that this doctrine was not contrary to the security of the constitution, or to the spirit of liberty; since it was admitted it could be legally exerted during the recess of parliament, only in cases of great emergency, and when parliament cannot be conveniently assembled. In this debate Lord Camden and Lord Mansfield were opposed to each other, and a ground laid for those feelings of hostility which were often displayed between these two high functionaries. It is not to be doubted that Lord Camden acted with his usual conscientiousness in the affair, but yet some of the arguments which he advanced on this occasion were certainly unsound, and opposed to those principles of constitutional liberty of which his lordship had so often proved himself the intrepid and successful defender.

An event took place in the beginning of the year 1770, which made a considerable change in the administration;—this was the well-known affair after the Middlesex election. The general discontent excited by this measure without doors during summer, seemed to revive with increased force on the assembling of parliament. The commons took up

the expulsion and incapacitation of Wilkes in the full spirit of constitutional inquiry. Nor was the affair less agitated in the lords. His lordship, however, on this occasion gratified the fullest expectations of the public, by declaring in his place, and with an energy which spoke the zeal and sincerity of his sentiments, "That he considered the decision upon that affair as a direct attack upon the first principles of the constitution; and that if in the judicial exercise of his office he was to pay any regard to that or to any other such vote, passed in opposition to the known and established laws of the land, he should look upon himself as a traitor to his trust, and an enemy to his country." The public avowal of an opinion so contrary to the conduct if not the views of administration, was considered as a total defection, and resented as a desertion from that side. On the 17th of January the lord-chancellor received a message from the secretary of state's office, desiring, in his majesty's name, that he would deliver up the seals that evening at seven o'clock. His lordship accordingly waited on his majesty at the queen's palace, and delivered them into his own hands.

His lordship considering a private station as the post of honour, did not slacken his endeavours in defence of the rights of the people. The late marquess of Rockingham having made a motion in the house of lords, the design of which was, "To procure a declaratory resolution, that the law of the land and the established customs of parliament were the sole rule of determination in all cases of election;" long debates ensued upon this question, and the motion was at length overruled by a large majority. The opposers of the question having obtained this proof of their strength, resolved to exert it to advantage; and a motion was made at a late hour of the night, "That any resolution of the house, directly or indirectly, impeaching a judgment of the house of commons in a matter where their jurisdiction is competent, final, and conclusive, would be a violation of the constitutional rights of the commons, tend to make a breach between the two houses of parliament, and lead to a general confusion." The hardness of this motion, and introduced at a late hour of night, roused all the powers of opposition, and in particular those of Lord Camden, who said, "That this motion included a surrender of their most undoubted, legal, necessary, and sacred rights,—a surrender as injurious to the collective body of the people, to their representatives, and to the crown, as it was totally subversive of the authority and dignity of that house." The strength of his lordship's arguments, as well as those of his noble colleagues, lay in the protest which was entered upon the journals on this occasion. We insert the concluding paragraph as a specimen of the spirit of it. After assigning seven different grounds of dissent, it concluded thus:—"We think ourselves, therefore, as peers, and as Englishmen, and freemen,—names as dear to us as any titles whatsoever, indispensably obliged to protest against a resolution utterly subversive of the authority and dignity of this house, equally injurious to the collective body of the people, to their representatives and to the crown, to which we owe our advice upon every public emergency; a resolution in law, unconstitutional; in precedent, not only unauthorized, but contradicted; in tendency, ruinous; in the time and manner of obtaining it, unfair and surreptitious. And we do here solemnly declare and pledge ourselves to the public, that we will persevere in availing ourselves, as far

as in us lies, of every right and every power with which the constitution has armed us for the good of the whole, in order to obtain full relief for the injured electors of Great Britain, and full security for the future against the most dangerous usurpation upon the rights of the people, which, by sapping the fundamental principles of this government, threatens its total dissolution."<sup>2</sup>

Out of office, Camden continued to be the same uniform opposer of all unconstitutional doctrines. He took an active part only on constitutional questions, such as the Middlesex election, the law of libels, the royal marriage act, &c. till some time previous to the breaking out of the American war. Foreseeing by the steps which the ministry were taking, that they were about to involve their country in a war which portended the most dreadful evils to both countries, he was unwearied in his efforts to prevent a rupture. His friend the earl of Chatham, after a long absence occasioned by illness, appeared in the house of lords on this occasion. He saw the storm about to burst, and early in the year 1775, he came down to the house to express his utmost disapprobation of the whole system of American measures. When the American papers were laid upon the table, his lordship moved an address for recalling the troops from Boston, in which he was ably supported by Lord Camden. They represented this measure as a matter of immediate necessity,—that an hour lost in allaying the ferments in America, might produce years of calamity,—that the present situation of the troops rendered events possible which would cut off the probability of a reconciliation,—that this conciliating measure, thus well-timed on our side, would remove all jealousy and apprehension on the other, and instantaneously produce the happiest effects to both.

On the second reading of the bill for settling an annuity on the heirs of the earl of Chatham, the duke of Chandos particularly objected to the perpetuity of the grant, and to the mischievous precedent it would set for similar applications from men in high stations. He was seconded by the lord-chancellor Bathurst, who in the course of his speech brought in the precedent of the great duke of Marlborough, who, though he settled and negotiated the grand alliance which broke the power of France and set limits to the ambition of Louis XIV., had the perpetuity of his grant of £5000 a-year refused him by the commons. Lord Camden felt for the honour of his deceased friend, and spoke in support of the bill with an energy that seemed to grow out of the occasion.

The remaining years of the American war were full of disaster, and presented still gloomier prospects. A war with France broke out immediately after the earl of Chatham's death, which was followed by a similar declaration from Spain, and ultimately by a declaration on the part of Great Britain against the United States. Under such an accumulation of national disaster, the greatest characters in the kingdom were loudly called upon to exert themselves, either by advice or personal efforts, in its defence. Lord Camden, though he had lost a tower of defence in his late illustrious colleague, had a firm support in the abilities of the duke of Richmond, the marquess of Rockingham, and

<sup>2</sup> This protest, which for spirit, precision, and constitutional knowledge, has been always much admired, was signed by five dukes, one marquess, eighteen earls, one viscount, and sixteen barons.

Lord Shelburne. With these noblemen he continued to act in concert till the spring of the year 1782, when the minister losing the confidence of the house as well as the public, retired from power in the beginning of March, and on the 27th of that month, a new ministry was formed under the auspices of the marquess of Rockingham, constituted first lord of the treasury. Lord Camden was appointed lord-president of the council.

In May, 1786, his majesty, in consideration of Lord Camden's long and faithful services, raised his lordship from the rank of baron to that of earl, by the title of Earl Camden, Viscount Bayham. At this period his lordship, now at the advanced age of seventy-three, had some thoughts of retiring from public business; but his majesty graciously interceded against this resolution, and as his lordship's health and spirits were still competent to his duty, he submitted to the royal pleasure, and continued in office.

The last public act of his lordship corresponded to the first, and the whole tenor of his life was in support of the constitutional liberties of the subject. The 'bill respecting trial in cases of libel,' came before the house of lords on the 18th of May, 1792. His lordship through age and infirmities had not attended the house for some time; but as this bill was intended to give the power to a British jury to determine on the matter of law as well as fact in the case of a libel—a point which his lordship had unremittingly contended for—he felt it his duty to give it his last support. He therefore attended in his place upon this occasion; and when the order of the day for the farther consideration of the report of this bill was moved, spoke in support of it at considerable length. He began with declaring that he had never intended to trouble their lordships on a public question again, since age had laid its hand upon him, and he had no longer that vigour left that was necessary to maintain a contest of argument, but that he held it to be his indispensable duty, as long as he had sentiments upon the subject, and a tongue to utter them, to stand up and defend his opinion respecting the rights of juries to decide upon the law as well as the fact,—an opinion which was by no means new to their lordships, since it was upon record. The judges, he observed, in stating their opinions, had avoided coming to the point, and had not given any thing like a satisfactory answer to the main question which created all the difficulty. Their opinion seemed to be worded with a careful attention to escape the notice of the only matter that created any thing like a difference of sentiment. The doctrine that all matters of law lay within the province of the judges, and matters of fact only with the juries, was a modern doctrine, and a practice unheard-of in ancient times, arising from a perverse application of that well-known maxim, "*In quæstionem legis respondent iudices sed in quæstionem facti respondent juratores.*" Here his lordship explained in what cases the maxim applied, and where it did not; and contended that it had no reference whatever to a trial of a criminal case in the first instance, but must appertain only to questions which come judicially before a court subsequent to a verdict. His lordship then entered into a discussion of the difference between a general verdict and a special verdict, declaring that nothing could be more opposite than the one to the other. In a special verdict the jury found the facts, but referred the law that resulted from them to the judges or

court to decide upon. After stating a direction of Chief-justice Jefferies, his lordship related from memory what had occurred on the trial of Owen the bookseller, before Lord-chief-justice Lee, when he had himself been counsel for the defendant. At that time he said the jury took upon themselves to take the whole of the case, the law as well as the fact, into their own hands, and they acquitted the defendant. From memory, he said he absolutely denied that he ever held a practice different from the doctrine that he was then maintaining: if any noble lord was in possession of any notes for that trial which contradicted what he said, he must give way to their authority. In the case of Dr Shebbeare he had turned his back to the court, and directed all he had to say to the jury. His lordship next mentioned the case where the verdict on a trial for a libel had been, "guilty of printing and publishing only," which the court could not get over; and therefore said, if the attorney-general chose it, he might begin *de novo*. But no new trial ever was instituted, because it was pretty clear from the verdict on the first trial, what the sense of the country was upon the paper in question. His lordship contended that they must destroy the corner-stone of the constitution who denied the jury the right to decide upon both the law and the fact. Those who argued differently might say, "How would they guard against the ill consequences?" Why, by a new trial, if there should be any legal ground for one. Formerly a jury was liable to be attainted for a false verdict; but the practice of attaint had been long out of use, and the customary mode of correcting the errors of a jury was by a new trial; and a new trial, their lordships would recollect, would carry the matter again before a jury for decision. It was the conscience of a jury that must pronounce the prisoner guilty or not guilty. And why, he asked, were not a jury to be trusted in cases of libel as well as in other concerns? Did they not trust them in all that concerned property and liberty, nay, even life and limb? A libel, his lordship said, must obviously have a seditious tendency,—a tendency to disturb the king's peace, and was not any man of common sense upon a jury as competent as a judge to say, whether a paper charged as a libel had that tendency or not? Another, and a most material point in trials for libel, was the intention, the *quo animo* with which the person accused published the libel. The intention must be proved, and how could they prove it but by facts? The moment the intention produces the action, it mixes with it, and becomes part of that action; and Judge Jefferies himself had declared, "That no man could judge of another man's intentions but by his words and actions." His lordship, after accurately defining what was the proper proof of a man's criminal intentions, stated the inestimable value of the liberty of the press, and asked, who should be the regulator of the liberty of the press in this country, judges or jurors? Judges, he said, might, as they all knew, be corrupt; but juries never could. He concluded with declaring his intention for moving to strike out such words in the preamble of the bill as in the least degree tended to divide the power of a jury in matters of law as well as fact in cases of libel.

The debate on this bill being interrupted by the sudden illness of Lord Stormont, the house adjourned to the Monday following, when, after a long discussion, the question of commitment was carried by a considerable majority. On the commitment of the bill, the debates

were renewed with additional force of eloquence on both sides. The Lord-chancellor Thurlow "wished to submit to their lordships the necessity of so amending the bill as to make it conformable to what its principle—if any principle it had—pretended to be." His lordship then went into a long argument, in which he elaborately contended for the doctrines he had stated in the former debate on the second reading of the bill, justified the learned judges for the opinion they had delivered, and asserted that the bill would go out of the house a parliamentary condemnation of the opinions and rule of practice which they had entertained and acted upon in pursuance of the example of their ancestors. Lord Kenyon spoke on the same side. Lord Camden replied to both, and again contended with a spirit and zeal extraordinary in one of his age, that a jury had an undoubted right to form their verdict themselves according to their consciences, applying the law to the fact; if it were otherwise, he said, the first principle of the law of England would be defeated and overthrown. If the twelve judges were to assert the contrary again and again, his lordship declared he would deny it utterly, because every Englishman was to be tried by his country; and who was his country but his twelve peers, sworn to condemn or acquit according to their consciences? If the case were otherwise, and the opposite doctrine was to obtain, trial by jury would be a nominal trial,—a mere form; for in fact the judge, and not the jury, would try the man; and for the truth of this argument, his lordship said he would contend for it to the latest hour of his life,—*'Manibus pedibusque.'* The amendment moved by the lord-chancellor was rejected, and the rest of the bill gone through and agreed to without further amendment.

From the moment that the libel bill received the royal sanction, Camden never afterwards appeared in the house of lords. It was the climax of his political life, and he was contented himself with performing his duty as president of the council, which he regularly attended whenever his growing infirmities would permit him. About a year before his death he again solicited his sovereign for leave to resign; but as his lordship's mind was fully competent to the discharge of that high office, his majesty was graciously pleased to acquaint him, "That he claimed a continuation of his services whilst he was so well able to perform them." In this interval to the time of his death, every indulgence was shown him that was possible. Councils were often previously held at his house, and draughts of deliberations sent him down into the country, where he for the most part resided in the domestic enjoyments of his family, for whom he always manifested a truly parental and affectionate attachment. Finding his health visibly declining about the beginning of the year 1794, he removed from Camden-place in Kent—his country-seat—to his town residence in Hill-street, Berkeley-square, where, more through the pressure of old age than any immediate disorder, he died at the advanced age of eighty-one, on Friday the 18th of April, 1794.

Lord Camden's character as a judge is utterly without impeachment. In his equal administration of justice, with his spirited and effectual condemnation of general warrants,—his efforts in favour of the rights of election,—his unceasing exertions in support of the rights of juries in cases of libel, particularly the last splendid exertion of his eloquence

on this subject, together with his uniform attachment to the constitution upon all occasions, every Englishman must acknowledge him the faithful guardian of their rights and liberties.

"His lordship's parliamentary abilities," says one of his contemporaries, "are unquestionable. In point of contrast to the last noble lord,<sup>3</sup> he is by no means so great an orator in the strict sense of the word; but he is infinitely his superior in depth of reasoning, in logical definition, in the philosophical arrangement and separation of his ideas, and in his knowledge of the fundamental laws of this constitution. He never leaves those openings to his antagonists which eternally recur in the harangues of his learned and noble brother. He seldom addresses himself merely to the passions; and if he does, he always almost addresses them through the medium of true argument and sound logic. In fact, if he was to speak in an audience composed of men of talents and experience only, there is no man in either house would stand the least chance to contend with him for victory; but in merely driving or leading a herd, Lord Mansfield, Lord Chatham, and even Lord Lyttleton, are confessedly his superiors. In respect of delineation, Lord Camden is cool, deliberative, argumentative, and persuasive. He is fond of first principles; he argues closely, and never lets them out of his view; his volubility, choice of language, flowing of ideas, and of words to express them, are inexhaustible. The natural rights of the colonists,—the privileges and immunities granted by charter,—and their representative rights as native subjects of the British empire,—are the substrata on which he erects all his arguments, and from whence he draws all his conclusions. His judgment is, if possible, still greater in debate than his mere powers of oratory as a public speaker. He either takes a part early in it, decides the question, or embarrasses his adversaries, or he waits till they have spent all their force, and rests his attack upon some latent or neglected point, overlooked or little attended to in the course of the debate. In fine, as Lord Mansfield is the greatest orator, so we do not hesitate to pronounce Camden by much the most able reasoner in either house of parliament. On the other hand, his lordship deals too much in first principles, denied or controverted by his adversaries, and seems more eager to convince the people of America, though at three thousand miles' distance, that they are right, than to persuade his noble auditory that they are wrong. Many of his speeches bear an inflammatory appearance."

In the circle of his friends, Lord Camden was pleasant, easy, and communicative, carefully avoiding the lawyer or the statesman. He was the intimate friend of Garrick, and frequently badinaged with that great actor. The following observation has been attributed to him:—"Lord Mansfield has a way of saying 'It is a rule with me—an inviolable rule—never to hear a syllable said out of court about any cause, that either is, or is not, in the smallest degree likely to come before me.' Now I, for my part, could hear as many people as choose to talk to me about their causes; it would never make the slightest impression upon me."

The punishment of the stocks having been spoken lightly of by a barrister, on a trial at which he was presiding, he said, leaning over

<sup>3</sup> Lord Mansfield.

the bench to the counsel, "Brother, were you ever in the stocks?" Being answered in the negative, he whispered, "Then I have; and can assure you it is by no means such a trifle as you have represented it." His lordship, it appears, when on a visit at Lord Dacre's, was walking near Alveley in Essex, with a gentleman, whom he requested to open the parish-stocks for him, that he might be enabled to judge of the nature of the punishment. Having done so, his companion, who was remarkable for absence of mind, walked on, occupied with a book, and the earl being unable to extricate himself, asked a countryman to release him. "No, no, old gentleman," quoth the rustic; "you were not set there for nothing."

### Sir Edward Hughes.

DIED A. D. 1794.

THIS officer entered the navy at an early age, and served as a midshipman at the capture of Porto Bello with so much credit, that he was promoted to the rank of lieutenant on the 25th August, 1740. In 1747 he obtained the command of the *Lark*. In 1756 he was nominated to the *Deal Castle*, of twenty-four guns, and in 1757 became captain of the *Somerset*, a seventy-four, in which ship he continued until near the termination of the war. In 1758 he served in the successful expedition against *Louisburg*, under the direction of Admiral *Boscawen*, and afterwards in that against *Quebec*, under Sir *Charles Saunders*.

In 1770 Hughes was reappointed to the *Somerset*, and three years after proceeded in the *Salisbury*, of fifty guns, with the rank of commodore, to the East India station, where he remained until 1777. On the 23d of January, 1778, he was promoted to the rank of rear-admiral of the blue, and soon after received the insignia of a knight of the bath. Early in 1779 he became commander-in-chief on the East India station, and in his way out effected the reduction of the French settlement of *Goree*, on the coast of Africa. On the 7th of March, 1779, he was made rear-admiral of the red, and on the 26th of September, 1780, vice-admiral of the blue. In December, 1780, he attacked and destroyed the squadrons of *Hyder Ali*, in the ports of *Calicut* and *Mangalore*.

*M. de Suffrein*, one of the ablest naval officers in the French service, soon after arrived in India, for the purpose of opposing the force under Admiral Hughes. On the 15th of February, 1781, the French admiral was seen off *Madras*, having with him five or six prizes, which had been taken on his passage. On the 16th five of these, and one of the enemy's vessels with 300 soldiers, besides cannon, military stores, and ammunition on board, fell into the hands of the British. The two fleets neared each other on the succeeding day; but the English van not being able to tack and get into action for the want of wind, an unequal contest of three hours' duration ensued, between eight of the enemy's best ships and four of the British squadron, among which was the admiral's ship, the *Superbe*. Notwithstanding their superiority the French fleet sustained considerable damage, and, taking advantage of a favourable breeze, hauled their wind and stood away.



After having repaired two of his ships at Trincomalé, in Ceylon—which place he had just captured from the Dutch—the English admiral put to sea on the 4th of March, and on the 30th was joined by a reinforcement from England. The adverse fleets met again on the 12th of April, and, after a warm engagement, the enemy drew off. On the 20th of June, in the following year, Sir Edward Hughes, who had previously been joined by Admiral Bickerton with six ships of the line, again engaged his old antagonist, De Suffrein, who, after three hours' spirited fighting, bore away. On the 22d of the same month the two fleets were in sight of each other, off Pondicherry, but no action took place. Fifteen hundred of his men being rendered unfit for duty by the scurvy, Sir Edward Hughes now repaired to Madras; whence, peace having been proclaimed, he proceeded with the fleet to England, and did not afterwards assume any command.

On the 24th of September, 1787, he was promoted to the rank of vice-admiral of the red, and on the 1st of February, 1793, to that of admiral of the blue. He died at an advanced age, at his seat in Essex, on the 17th of February, 1794.

### Marshal Conway.

BORN A. D. 1720.—DIED A. D. 1795.

THIS accomplished and upright man was second son of the first lord Conway. He entered the army in 1740, and distinguished himself on several occasions by his personal prowess as well as military science. In 1741 he was returned to the Irish parliament for the county of Antrim, and, in the same year, to the British house of commons, for Higham-Ferrers.

In 1757 he was employed as second in command, under Sir John Mordaunt, in the Rochefort expedition. His advice, on this occasion, was that the place should be attacked, but Mordaunt did not act upon his recommendation. Towards the end of George the Second's reign, he was appointed groom of the bed-chamber, which post he continued to fill in the establishment of the new sovereign. In 1761 he commanded the British forces in Germany under Prince Ferdinand, in the absence of the marquess of Granby.

In the keen debate on general warrants, in the house of commons, towards the close of the year 1764, General Conway spoke and voted against ministers. This act of integrity cost him all his military employments; but the duke of Devonshire, in consequence of the disinterestedness and independence which General Conway displayed on this and other occasions, soon after bequeathed him a legacy of £5000. On the formation of the Rockingham administration, General Conway was appointed one of the secretaries of state, and filled that office, till 1768, in a manner which extorted the applause even of his political antagonists.

In the debates on American affairs, General Conway advocated the rights of the colonists with great ability and determination. He moved the repeal of the stamp act under circumstances which have been thus glowingly described by Burke, in his famous speech in 1774: "I will

do justice—I ought to do it—to the honourable gentleman who led us in this house (Conway). Far from the duplicity wickedly charged on him, he acted his part with alacrity and resolution. We all felt inspired by the example he gave us, down even to myself, the weakest in that phalanx. I declare for one, I knew well-enough—it could not be concealed from any body—the true state of things; but, in my life, I never came with so much spirits into this house. It was a time for a man to act in! We had powerful enemies, but we had faithful and determined friends, and a glorious cause. We had a great battle to fight, but we had the means of fighting; not as now, when our arms are tied behind us. We did fight that day, and conquer. I remember, Sir, with a melancholy pleasure, the situation of the honourable gentleman (Conway) who made the motion for the repeal, in that crisis when the whole trading interest of this empire, crammed into your lobbies, with a trembling and anxious expectation, waited, almost to a winter's return of light, their fate from your resolutions. When at length you had determined in their favour, and your doors thrown open, showed them the figure of their deliverer in the well-earned triumph of his important victory, from the whole of that grave multitude there arose an involuntary burst of gratitude and transport. They jumped upon him like children on a long absent father. They clung about him as captives about their redeemer. All England, all America, joined in his applause. Nor did he seem insensible to the best of all earthly rewards—the love and admiration of his fellow-citizens. Hope elevated and joy brightened his crest! I stood near him, and his face, to use the expression of the scripture of the first martyr, ‘his face was as if it had been the face of an angel.’ I do not know how others feel; but if I had stood in that situation, I never would have exchanged it for all that kings in their profusion could bestow. I did hope that that day's danger and honour would have been a bond to hold us all together for ever; but, alas! that, with other pleasing visions, is long since vanished.”

In the session of 1782 General Conway introduced the motion which drove North from the premiership. He had already declared, in his place in parliament, that he would rather submit to the independence of America than persist in the prosecution of so pernicious and unjust a war. On the 22d of February, he moved “that an address should be presented, imploring his majesty that the war might be no longer pursued for the impracticable purpose of reducing the people of America by force.” The motion was seconded by Lord John Cavendish, and opposed by Wellbore Ellis, the new secretary for the American department, who declared, “that it was now in contemplation to contract the scale of the war, and to prosecute hostilities by such means as were very dissimilar from the past. In order to obtain peace with America we must vanquish the French; and as in the late war, America had been said to be conquered in Germany, so in this America must be conquered in France. In the present circumstances,” he continued, “the administration were conscious of the necessity of drawing into a narrow compass the operations of the American war,—a change of circumstances demanding a corresponding change of measures.” The motion was lost only by a single vote; and as a majority of the absent members were supposed to be adverse to ministry, it was thought expedient to bring the question again before the house in a different form.

On the 27th of February, therefore, General Conway brought forward a new motion to the same effect, which was seconded by Lord Althorpe. In order to evade the question, the attorney-general (Wallace) recommended that a truce should be proposed with America; but on a division upon his amendment, a majority of nineteen appeared against ministers. The motion of General Conway was immediately followed by another, for an address to his majesty to put an end to the war; and it was further resolved, that the address should be presented by the whole house.<sup>1</sup> His majesty's answer to the address was in general terms, that he should take such measures as might appear to him most conducive to the restoration of peace. Any reference to the prosecution of offensive war was cautiously avoided. The evasive nature of this answer induced General Conway to move another resolution in the commons, declaring, "that the house would consider as enemies to his majesty, and to the country, all those who should advise the further prosecution of offensive war on the continent of North America." After a feeble opposition, this motion also was permitted to pass without a division.

On the formation of the new ministry Conway was placed at the head of the forces; but he resigned his military command in the following year, and retired from public life to his seat, near Henley-upon-Thames, where he died suddenly on the 9th of July, 1795.

General Conway was an accomplished scholar, and the reputed author of several pamphlets and minor literary pieces. He accompanied his cousin Walpole, and Gray, in their continental tour, in 1739.

### Sir Henry Clinton.

BORN A. D. 1738.—DIED A. D. 1795.

THIS officer was grandson of Francis, sixth earl of Lincoln, and son of George, second son of that nobleman. He was born about the year 1738. Having entered the army, he served for some time in Hanover. In 1758 he became a captain in the first regiment of guards, and, in 1775, obtained the rank of major-general, having, in the interim, distinguished himself in the early part of the American war. He was present in the battle of Bunker's hill, and commanded the troops who carried the intrenchments at the taking of Boston; and, after having assisted at the unsuccessful attack on Charleston, bore a share in the capture of New York and Long Island, of which latter place he was appointed commandant, but was compelled to capitulate to the American general, Gates.

In 1777 he was made a knight of the bath; and in January, 1778, appointed commander-in-chief of the British forces in America. On the 8th of May he arrived at Philadelphia, whence, on the approach of General Washington, he commenced and successfully accomplished his retreat to New York. In 1779 he was appointed colonel of the 7th,

<sup>1</sup> When the house went up to St James's with the address, the noted General Arnold was found standing at the right hand of his majesty. This circumstance drew forth some pointed observations in parliament from Lord Surrey, who declared, "that it was an insult to the house, and deserved its censure."

or king's own regiment. In the course of the same year he undertook an expedition into the province of New Jersey, where, according to French writers, his troops behaved with great barbarity. He also, in conjunction with Major-general Provost, who commanded in East Florida, concerted and carried into effect an invasion of Georgia, which was completely successful. In January, 1780, he arrived with a body of troops in South Carolina, and shortly afterwards invested Charleston, which surrendered on the 11th of May. For his services on this occasion he was honoured with the thanks of parliament. He subsequently recaptured Stony Point; and meditated an attack on the French forces in Rhode Island, which, however, the approach of Washington compelled him to abandon.

Shortly afterwards he seduced General Arnold to deliver up the strong position of West Point, the defence of which had been intrusted to him, and employed emissaries to go among the American troops and seduce them from their fidelity. The affair of Arnold, involving as it did the fate of a gallant officer, Major André, created a great sensation both in Europe and America. The campaign of 1780 had reduced the cause of the colonists to a low ebb. The country was exhausted, the continental currency expiring. While these disasters were openly menacing the northern states, treachery was silently undermining them. The disposition of the American forces afforded an opportunity of accomplishing so much to the advantage of the British that they could well afford a liberal reward for treachery. The American army was stationed in the strongholds of the highlands on both sides of the North River. In this arrangement, Arnold solicited for the command of West Point. This fort has been called the Gibraltar of America. It was built after the loss of Fort Montgomery, for the defence of the North River, and was deemed the most proper for commanding its navigation. Rocky ridges rising one behind another, rendered it incapable of being invested by less than twenty thousand men. Though some even then entertained doubts of Arnold's fidelity, yet Washington believing it to be impossible that honour should be wanting in a breast which he knew was the seat of valour, granted his request, and intrusted him with the important post. Arnold, thus invested with command, carried on a negotiation with Sir Henry Clinton, by which it was agreed that the former should make such a disposition of his forces as would enable the latter to surprise West Point. The object of this negotiation was the strongest post of the Americans,—the thoroughfare of communication between the eastern and southern states, and the repository of their most valuable stores. The agent employed in this negotiation, on the part of Sir Henry Clinton, was Major André, adjutant-general of the British army. To favour the necessary communications, the Vulture sloop of war had been previously stationed in the North River, as near to Arnold's posts as was practicable without exciting suspicion. A written correspondence between Arnold and André had been for some time carried on under the fictitious names of Gustavus and Anderson. In the night of the 21st of September, a boat was sent from the shore to fetch Major André. Arnold met him on the beach, without the posts of either army. Their communing was not concluded till it was too near the dawn of day for André to return to the Vulture. Arnold told him he must lie concealed till the next night. For that purpose

he was conducted within one of the American posts, against his previous stipulation, and continued with Arnold the following day. The boatmen refused to carry him back the next night, as the *Vulture*, from being exposed to the fire of some cannon brought up to annoy her, had changed her position. André's return to New York by land, was now the only practicable mode of escape. To effect this he quitted his uniform, which he had hitherto worn under a surtout, for a common coat, and was furnished with a horse, and, under the name of John Anderson, with a passport "to go to the lines of White Plains, or lower if he thought proper, he being on public business." He advanced alone and undisturbed a great part of the way. When he thought himself almost out of danger, he was stopped by three of the New York militia, between the outposts of the two armies. Major André, instead of producing his pass, asked the man who stopped him, "Where he belonged to?" He answered, "To below," meaning New York. André replied, "So do I," declared himself a British officer, and pressed that he might not be detained. He soon discovered his mistake. His captors proceeded to search him: several papers were found in his possession, secreted in his boots. These were in Arnold's hand-writing, and contained exact returns of the state of the forces, ordnance, and defences at West Point. André offered his captors a purse of gold and a valuable watch, if they would let him pass, and permanent provision and future promotion if they would convey and accompany him to New York, but they nobly disdained the proffered bribe, and delivered him a prisoner to Colonel Jameson, who commanded the scouting parties. André, when delivered to Jameson, continued to call himself by the name of Anderson, and asked leave to send a letter to Arnold to acquaint him with his detention. This request was inconsiderately granted. Arnold on the receipt of the letter abandoned every thing, and went on board the *Vulture* sloop of war. Meanwhile Colonel Jameson forwarded to Washington the papers found on André, together with a letter giving an account of the whole affair; but the express, by taking a different route from the general, who was returning from a conference at Hartford with Count de Rochambeau, missed him. This delay enabled Arnold to effect his escape. The same packet which detailed the particulars of André's capture, brought a letter from him, in which he avowed his name and character, and endeavoured to show that he did not come under the description of a spy. He stated, that he held a correspondence with a person under the orders of his general; that his intention went no farther than meeting that person on neutral ground, for the purpose of intelligence; and that, against his stipulation, his intention, and without his knowledge beforehand, he was brought within the American posts, and had to concert his escape from them. Washington referred the whole case to the examination and decision of a board consisting of fourteen general officers. André on his examination voluntarily confessed every thing that related to himself, and particularly that he did not come ashore under the protection of a flag. The board did not examine a single witness, but founded their report on his own confession. In this they stated the following facts: "That Major André came on shore on the night of the twenty-first of September, in a private and secret manner, and that he changed his dress within the American lines, and, under a feigned name and disguised habit, passed their

works, and was taken in a disguised habit when on his way to New York, and when taken, several papers were found in his possession which contained intelligence for the enemy." From these facts they farther reported it as their opinion, "That Major André ought to be considered as a spy, and agreeably to the laws and usages of nations, he ought to suffer death."

Sir Henry Clinton, Lieutenant-general Robertson, and Arnold himself, wrote pressing letters to General Washington, to prevent the decision of the board of general officers from being carried into effect. Arnold in particular urged, that every thing done by André had been done by his particular request, and at a time when he was the acknowledged commanding-officer in the department. He contended, "that he had a right to transact all these matters, for which, though wrong, Major André ought not to suffer." An interview also took place between General Robertson, on the part of the British, and General Greene, on the part of the Americans, at which every thing was urged by the former that ingenuity or humanity could suggest for averting the proposed execution,—but without effect. It was the general opinion of the American army that his life was forfeited, and that national dignity and sound policy required that the forfeiture should be exacted.<sup>1</sup>

After having made an ineffectual attempt to succour Lord Cornwallis, who, with the whole of his troops, was compelled to capitulate, Sir Henry Clinton commenced preparations, in 1782, for attacking the French settlements in the Antilles, but was superseded in his command before he could carry the project into effect.

On his return to England, a discussion took place between him and Cornwallis, as to the surrender of the latter, the entire blame of which each party attributed to the other. He subsequently obtained the governorship of Limerick, and, in 1793, that of Gibraltar, in possession of which he died on the 23d of December, 1795. He had for some time been a member of parliament; first for Newark, and afterwards for Launceston.

Sir Henry Clinton was undoubtedly an able and enterprising officer. His want of success in America was due to his want of means only to secure and retain his conquests; he had no force sufficient to contend with the energies of a roused people, directed by the genius of a Washington, and fighting for all that men hold dear and sacred. His attempts to tamper with the patriotism of his opponents do not, now at least, reflect any additional lustre on his character.

### Sir Hugh Palliser.

BORN A. D. 1722.—DIED A. D. 1796.



THIS naval officer was born at Kirk-Deighton in Yorkshire. His father was an officer of infantry. He served as a lieutenant in the engagement off Toulon, in 1744. In 1746 he made a successful cruise in the Weazel sloop of war. His services, after this period, until the year 1757, embraced the Leeward islands station, the East Indies, and

<sup>1</sup> Miller's History.

North America. In the latter year, while cruising off Ushant, he captured a very large French East India ship, after a severe action. In 1758 he served under Admiral Saunders in the Quebec expedition. He continued in active service until 1773, when he was created a baronet, and soon afterwards returned to parliament for Scarborough. In 1775 he became a flag-officer, and was appointed a lord of the admiralty. In 1778 he served as third in command under Admiral Keppel, in the engagement with the French fleet off Ushant. The failure of this action, or rather its non-important results, led to much recrimination betwixt him and the first in command, the nature of which we have already alluded to in our notice of Viscount Keppel.

Sir Hugh spent the latter part of his life in retirement. He died on the 19th of March, 1796.

### **Jeffery, Lord Amherst.**

BORN A. D. 1717.—DIED A. D. 1797.

THIS nobleman was born January 29th, 1717, at Riverhead in Kent, and named Jeffery after his father, who possessed a small estate there.

Having an elder brother, Sackville, to whom the family-fortune was to devolve, Jeffery, the second son, dedicated himself to the profession of arms. He received his first commission as an ensign in the guards, in 1731, when he was only fourteen years of age; and before he was twenty-five he became aid-de-camp to General, afterwards Lord Ligonier. In this capacity he accompanied that officer into Germany, and was present at the battles of Dettingen and Fontenoy. He was afterwards placed on the staff of the duke of Cumberland, with whom he is known to have been present at the engagements of Lafeldt and Hastenbeck; and it is supposed that he was with his royal highness during two other periods very different in point of glory,—the victory of Culloden, and the convention of Closter Camp. The duke made a point of providing for all his suite; and young Amherst—who by this time had attained a colonel's commission—was appointed in 1756 to the command of the 15th regiment of foot; in two years more he obtained the rank of major-general in the army.

On the commencement of hostilities with France, in 1757, it was determined to make America the seat of war. Pitt, afterwards earl of Chatham, by arousing the sleeping genius of his country, enabled it to achieve prodigies of valour and glory. With consummate penetration, he selected men of genius to direct the arms of his country. Major-general Wolfe, who had distinguished himself at the battle of Lafeldt, by his military talents, when scarcely twenty years of age, was an officer of his nomination. The fate of that gallant youth, who died in the arms of victory, and the conquest of Canada that soon followed, are events which have already been told. It was with this hero that Major-general Amherst was destined to co-operate. Having achieved the reduction of Louisburg, General Amherst, on the 30th of September, 1758, was appointed commander-in-chief of all the forces in North America, in the room of General Abercrombie, and at the same time received another regiment—the 60th, or Royal American—which

seems ever after to have been considered as an official appendage to this station. Pitt conceiving that the British colonies could never be deemed secure while the French were in possession of Canada, at length formed the plan of stripping Louis XV. of that extensive province. To this he was incited by other motives, dictated by the interests of commerce; for the trading in peltry would then be monopolized by Great Britain,—the Northern fisheries would entirely appertain to her,—and her fleets of merchantmen would be enabled to pass in safety to and from their destined ports without the dread of being picked up by the enemy's cruisers. The inhabitants of that part of the colonies called 'the Middle States,' were in particular anxious for the conquest of Canada; they considered their future safety as intimately connected with the success of this measure; or, if we are to credit the conjectures of some, a few enlightened natives of the Transatlantic continent already perceived that it would tend not a little to promote their future independence. It was accordingly determined in 1759, that General Amherst, at the head of 12,000 men, should penetrate into the interior by means of the lakes, make himself master of Ticonderoga and Crown Point, establish a naval force in the Champlain, descend by means of the Sorel which empties itself into the St Lawrence, and attack the capital; while General Wolfe and Admiral Saunders were to enter the same river at its confluence with the sea, and co-operate in the reduction of Quebec. This plan was admirably calculated for success; but, like all projects of a complex nature, it proved exceedingly difficult in the execution.

The commander-in-chief having set out with one of the best-appointed armies that had ever been beheld in North America, arrived on the 24th of July before Ticonderoga, which he found abandoned and set on fire by the enemy. It was necessary, however, to overcome the French flotilla on Lake Champlain; a large garrison was at the same time to be reduced in the Isle aux Noix, which was fortified by means of a formidable train of artillery. In order to oppose these with effect, it was necessary to build a little fleet. Accordingly a brigantine, a sloop, and a radeau, were put upon the stocks and completed with wonderful celerity; and on the 11th of October the whole armament was ready to begin the expedition. But after some slight success, the sudden approach of winter in those northern regions checked their proceedings for a time. In short, it appears that they were too late by a couple of months in commencing so formidable an enterprise. It was therefore determined to return to Crown Point, to put it in a state of defence, and to prepare to set out early in the spring to complete the original plan. In the meantime the gallant Wolfe had appeared before Quebec, and although unsupported by the grand army, on the plains of Abraham gained a battle which decided his own fate and that of Canada, of which he alone can be justly termed the conqueror.

The main object of the expedition having been thus achieved by means of a mere detachment, it now only remained to attain a naval superiority on Lake Champlain, to take possession of and occupy its principal island, and then to seize on Montreal. To accomplish these designs no less than three small armies were put in motion: one from Quebec, where the English flag was now flying, under General Murray, —another from Crown Point, under Colonel, afterwards General Havi-



land,—while the commander-in-chief was to cross the Ontario, enter the St Lawrence, and take possession of Montreal, the only place of any note then appertaining to France. All this was effected. On the 8th of September, 1760, the French general capitulated on condition of being sent home with his troops.

General Amherst remained in America until 1763, when he returned home. In 1761 he had been presented with one of the first ribands of the bath which his majesty had to bestow, and about the same time he was also appointed governor of Virginia. On September 21st, 1768, he was suddenly dismissed from all his employments. So sudden and unexpected a disgrace is said to have ensued in consequence of his attachment to the great commoner of that day who was then out of place. This eclipse, however, was of very short duration, for he was soon readmitted to favour, and received fresh marks of the royal bounty. In short, he was not only reappointed to the command of the 60th, which had been conferred on General Gage, but also nominated to the 3d regiment of foot, and declared the head of the staff of Great Britain, in consequence of which the army at home was placed under his control. In 1771 he was appointed to the lucrative government of Guernsey: and in the course of the next year became lieutenant-general of the ordnance. Having resigned the latter in favour of General Howe, he was recompensed, on the death of Lord Harrington, with the 2d troop of grenadier guards; and on the demise of Lord Cadogan he obtained the 2d troop of horse-guards. On the reduction of the latter, he had the 2d regiment of horse-guards conferred upon him. On May 20th, 1776, he was created Baron Amherst of Holmesdale in Kent, with remainder to his nephew, the son of a younger brother. In the meantime his interest and credit at court seemed to increase daily. In 1778 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the army of England; and in 1779 he was made colonel of the 2d troop of life-guards. In consequence of the re-establishment of the staff he was once more appointed commander-in-chief of the army of Great Britain, January 23d, 1793, which was considered as an injustice to General Conway, the oldest officer in the service, and to whom the situation of course appertained by seniority. It is also said to have given great offence to others who had been longer on the establishment than himself, one of whom was of the blood-royal.

It being at length determined to confide the command of the army to his royal highness the duke of York, his majesty's second son, a resignation on the part of his lordship was expected, and he had the offer of an earl's coronet on this occasion, which he declined; but on the 30th of July, 1796, he accepted the rank of field-marshal. His lordship's increasing age and infirmities had rendered him unfit for public business nearly two years before this period, and he now retired to his seat at Montreal in Kent—so called after the town of the same name in Canada—where he died on the 3d of August, 1797, in the eighty-first year of his age.

As an officer Amherst was bold, intrepid, and enterprising, a strict disciplinarian, but the friend of merit. He was also remarked for the simplicity of his manners, and may very properly be termed a sagacious, rather than a great general. When the American war began to assume a serious aspect, he was invited to repair to the transatlantic continent,

and assume the chief command; but he gave a decisive proof of his discretion by refusing to take the field with less than 30,000 men. No Englishman was better acquainted with the colonies and the disposition and genius of their inhabitants. While serving on that station he had conceived the idea of an American peerage, or order of aristocracy, to continue during life only; and he himself, had this taken place, was to have been created a peer of that description, with precedence of all others. Several other schemes of internal regulation were also suggested by him, but not adopted. As commander-in-chief in Great Britain, he was accused of sacrificing the army to patronage; and during his continuance in office it was jocularly observed, that there were many of his colonels still at school. As a legislator he generally voted with the minister of the day; and notwithstanding he had been brought forward by the popular interest, he constantly sided, during the latter period of his life, with the party who affected to denominate themselves 'the king's friends.' In private life his character stood high. He lived within his income, detested ostentation, dressed in a plain garb, and was free and affable in his communication with society.

## John Wilkes.

BORN A. D. 1727.—DIED A. D. 1797.

JOHN WILKES was born in St John's-street, Clerkenwell, London, October 28th, 1727. He received the rudiments of his education in the town of Hertford. After some stay there he was removed into Buckinghamshire, where he was placed under a private tutor of dissenting principles, who afterwards accompanied him to the continent. Having attained considerable eminence in classical literature—to which he was devoted during the whole course of his life—young Wilkes was sent to Leyden, where it was intended that he should finish his studies. While in Holland he formed an acquaintance with the ingenious Andrew Baxter;<sup>1</sup> and such was Mr Baxter's esteem for his young friend, that he dedicated one of his publications to him, and carried on a friendly intercourse by letter until his death, which occurred in 1750.

After residing a considerable time abroad, and visiting several parts of Germany, Wilkes returned to his native country, and married Miss Mead, heiress to the Meads of Buckinghamshire, with whom he got a considerable fortune, which, like that of his own family, had been acquired in trade. He now settled at Aylesbury, and being, in consequence of the whig principles in which he was educated, a warm advocate for the establishment of a militia, as a constitutional balance to a standing army, he accepted of a commission in the regiment raised in the county of Bucks. After serving some time in the capacity of lieutenant-colonel, he became colonel on the resignation of Sir Thomas Dashwood, afterwards Lord de Despencer, who observed in his farewell letter to the officers, "If the succession goes in the regiment—as I hope it will, and think it ought—then I must add, my successor is a

<sup>1</sup> Author of a work entitled 'An Enquiry into the Nature of the Human Soul, wherein its Immateriality is evinced from the Principles of Reason and Philosophy;' and also of 'Matho; sive Cosmotheoria puerilis, Dialogus.'

man of spirit, good sense, parts, and civil deportment, who has shown resolution and industry in putting this salutary measure into execution.

Wilkes commenced his political career at the general election in 1754. On the 16th of April that year, we find him offering himself for the representation of Berwick. In his address to the electors he emphatically observed: "I come here uncorrupting, and I promise you I shall ever be uncorrupted. As I never will take a bribe, so I never will offer one. I should think myself totally unworthy," adds he, "of the great and important trust I am now soliciting, if I sought to obtain it by the violation of the laws of my country, which I hold sacred." On this occasion he polled 192 votes, but proved unsuccessful.<sup>2</sup> He was soon after, however, elected for Aylesbury, in the room of Mr Potter; and on the dissolution of that parliament in 1761, was once more returned for the same place.

During Pitt's administration the nation was united at home and formidable abroad; but no sooner did that great commoner retire, than a formidable party arose in opposition to the measures of Lord Bute, who soon became equally obnoxious to the nobility and the people. Wilkes, who had given his most strenuous support to all the measures of the former minister, attacked his successor with uncommon zeal. The nobleman in question, aware that the nation was jealous of his authority and suspicious of his designs, employed a number of writers to support his own cause, and blacken the principles, characters, and conduct of his opponents. The member for Aylesbury had already publicly displayed his hostility to 'the thane,' in 'Observations on the papers relative to a rupture with Spain;' but he now prepared to inflict more severe and lasting marks of his enmity. On June 5th, 1762, he published the first number of 'The North Briton;' and, whether from the odium already attached to the minister, or the keen satire and happy wit of the author, or the lucky union of both, certain it is, that no periodical work, antecedent to that period, was ever in such request. Its effect on the public mind, and the future fortune of the writer, were alike conspicuous; for it is supposed to have been one of the efficient causes of the overthrow of the Bute administration, and it involved Wilkes not only in many public prosecutions, but also in many private disputes. On the appearance of No. 45 of that paper, a general warrant<sup>3</sup> was issued, under the hand and seal of the earl of Halifax, one of his majesty's secretaries of state, for the apprehension of the printers and publishers. Accordingly, on the evening of the 29th of April, 1763, several messengers arrested the person and entered the house of Mr

<sup>2</sup> This contest cost him between 3 and £4000; and, with the larger expenses of his Aylesbury election, plunged him in difficulties from which he never completely extricated himself.

<sup>3</sup> The following is a copy of this celebrated instrument:—

L. S.

"George Montague Dunk, earl of Halifax, Viscount Sunbury, &c.

"These are in his majesty's name, to authorize and require you—taking a constable to your assistance—to make strict and diligent search after the AUTHORS, PRINTERS, and PUBLISHERS, of a seditious and treasonable paper, entitled 'The North Briton, No. 45, Saturday, April 29d, 1763,' printed for George Kearsley, Ludgate St. London, and them or any of them having found, to apprehend and seize, together with their papers, and to bring in safe custody before me, &c.

"To NATHAN CARRINGTON, &c.

(Signed,)

DUNK HALIFAX."

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Wilkes, in Great George-street, Westminster; but he objected to the equivocal terms in which their authority was drawn up, and refused compliance. On this they departed, but returned next morning; and, on intimation of force being about to be resorted to, he at length proceeded in a chair to the secretary of state's office, where he underwent an examination, during which he denied the authority of general warrants, and was soon afterwards conducted close prisoner to the Tower, all his papers having been previously seized and rifled, and his will broken open and read. In the mean time, application being made by the prisoner's friends to the court of common pleas, an *habeas corpus* was issued to the constable of the Tower, in consequence of which Mr Wilkes was brought up next day to Westminster-hall, and remanded until Friday, May 6th, that the judges might have leisure to form their opinion. On that day he accordingly appeared once more at the bar, and addressed the judges in the following speech:—"My lords, far be it from me to regret that I have passed so many more days in captivity, as it will have afforded you an opportunity of doing, upon mature reflection and repeated examination, the more signal justice to my country. The liberty of all peers and gentlemen, and what touches me more sensibly, that of all the middling and inferior class of people, who stand most in need of protection, is in my case this day to be finally decided upon;—a question of such importance as to determine at once whether English liberty be a reality or a shadow. Your own free-born hearts will feel with indignation and compassion all that load of oppression under which I have so long laboured. Close imprisonment, the effect of premeditated malice, all access for more than two days denied to me, my house ransacked and plundered, my most private and secret concerns divulged, every vile and malignant insinuation, even of high treason itself, no less industriously than falsely circulated by my cruel and implacable enemies, together with all the various insolence of office, form but a part of my unexampled ill-treatment. Such inhuman principles of star-chamber tyranny will, I trust, by this court, upon this solemn occasion, be finally extirpated; and henceforth every innocent man, however poor and unsupported, may hope to sleep in peace and security in his own house, unviolated by king's messengers and the arbitrary mandates of an overbearing secretary of state. I will no longer delay your justice. The nation is impatient to hear, nor can be safe or happy till that is obtained. If the same persecution is, after all, to carry me before another court, I hope I shall find that the genuine spirit of magna charta, that glorious inheritance, that distinguishing characteristic of Englishmen, is as religiously revered there, as I know it is here, by the great personages before whom I have now the happiness to stand; and as in the ever-memorable case of the imprisoned bishops that an independent jury of free-born Englishmen will persist to determine my fate, as in conscience bound, upon constitutional principles, by a verdict of guilty or not guilty. I ask no more at the hands of my countrymen." Chief-justice Pratt, after descanting on the powers of a secretary of state, and observing that his warrant was not of superior force to that of a justice of peace, pronounced that the privilege of parliament had been violated in the person of Mr Wilkes, as it could only be forfeited by treason, felony, or breach of the peace. The prisoner was accordingly discharged amidst the plaudits of a crowded court.

On this occasion the member for Aylesbury displayed uncommon firmness; but his triumph was of short duration, for the attorney-general immediately commenced a prosecution against him in the court of king's bench.

Wilkes now prepared to lay his complaint before parliament, the franchise of which had been so grossly violated in his person; but he was anticipated by a royal message, delivered by Mr Grenville, accompanied by a copy of the North Briton, and a recital of the steps taken in consequence of it. On this, after a long debate, the house, without either the examination of witnesses on oath, or the intervention of a jury, on the motion of Lord North, by a majority of 273 to 111, declared the paper in question "a false, scandalous, and seditious libel," and ordered it to be burnt at the royal exchange by the common hangman, which, however, was not effected without considerable difficulty, on account of the opposition of the populace. Soon after this the house resolved, though not by so large a majority, "that privilege of parliament does not extend to the case of libels," and thus, merely with a view to punish one of its members, relinquished a franchise, sanctioned not only by its own records, but also by the recent decision of a court of justice. Pitt, who had voted with the majority on the former division respecting Wilkes, was found in the minority on this occasion. He represented the surrender of privilege as "highly dangerous to the freedom of parliament, and an infringement on the rights of the people. No man," he said, "could condemn the paper or libel more than he did; but he would come at the author fairly,—not by an open breach of the constitution, and a contempt of all restraint. This proposed sacrifice of privilege was putting every member of parliament, who did not vote with the minister, under a perpetual terror of imprisonment. To talk of an abuse of privilege was to talk against the constitution, against the very being and life of parliament. It was an arraignment of the justice and honour of parliament, to suppose that they would protect any criminal whatever. Whenever a complaint was made against any member, the house could give him up. This privilege had never been abused: it had been reposed in parliament for ages. But take away this privilege, and the whole parliament is laid at the mercy of the crown. Why," continued he, "is a privilege, which has never been abused, to be voted away? Parliament has no right to vote away its privileges. They are the inherent right of the succeeding members of this house, as well as of the present members; and I very much doubt whether a sacrifice made by this house is valid and conclusive against the claim of a future parliament." With respect to the paper itself, or the libel which had given pretence for this request to surrender the privileges of parliament, he observed that the house had already voted it a libel; he joined in that vote. He condemned the whole series of North Britons: he called them illiberal, unmanly, and detestable. He abhorred all national reflections. "The king's subjects," he said, "were one people. Whoever divided them was guilty of sedition. His majesty's complaint was well-founded: it was just: it was necessary. The author did not deserve to be ranked among the human species,—he was the blasphemer of his God, and the libeller of his king. He had no connection with him; he had no connection with any such writer: he neither associated nor communicated with any such. It was

true that he had friendships, and warm ones: he had obligations, and great ones: but no friendships, no obligations could induce him to approve what he firmly condemned. It might be supposed that he alluded to his noble relation Lord Temple. He was proud to call him his relation: he was his friend, his bosom friend, whose fidelity was as unshaken as his virtue. They went into office together, and they came out together: they had lived together, and would die together. He knew nothing of any connection with the writer of the libel. If there subsisted any, he was totally unacquainted with it. The dignity, the honour of parliament had been called upon to support and protect the purity of his majesty's character; and this they had done by a strong and decisive condemnation of the libel which his majesty had submitted to the consideration of the house. But having done this, it was neither consistent with the honour and safety of parliament, nor with the rights and interests of the people, to go one step farther. The rest belonged to the courts below." Soon after this, and while Wilkes was in France, the commons voted him guilty of contempt, and on the 29th of January, 1764, expelled him from his seat in parliament. This, however, was not effected until after a long and violent debate, in which the injustice of such a measure was ably enforced by the members in opposition.

On the very same day a charge of a more malignant nature was exhibited against him in the house of peers. A parody had been written on the 'Essay on Man,' of which Mr Wilkes printed part of twelve copies only at a private press in his own house; all of these he carefully locked up in his bureau, never having distributed any of them. This circumstance having transpired, a minister of that day did not blush to recur to the foulest means to obtain an incomplete copy.<sup>4</sup> No sooner was this in his possession, than he determined to make the most effectual use of it; accordingly, on the very afternoon that the commons voted the expulsion of Mr Wilkes, the earl of Sandwich, his former friend, rose in his place, and asserted "that Mr Wilkes had violated the most sacred ties of religion, as well as of decency, by printing in his own house a book or pamphlet entitled 'An Essay on Woman,' with notes or remarks, to which the name of a right reverend prelate, Warburton, bishop of Gloucester, had been scurrilously affixed." In consequence of this accusation, and under pretence that the privileges of the house were violated in the person of the prelate just mentioned, an address was voted to his majesty, requesting him to order a prosecution to be immediately instituted against the author, Mr Wilkes; and the attorney-general received instructions accordingly for that purpose. He was soon after outlawed for not appearing to the indictment by the crown-officer.

After an exile of two years, during which he visited Italy, the vindictive administration that had exhibited so much personal animosity against Mr Wilkes, and the unpopular parliament that had sacrificed its own privileges in his case, were both dissolved, and toward the latter end of 1776, he returned once more to England. He was induced to this step in consequence of the recent changes, by which his old and inti-

<sup>4</sup> "The fact is," says Wilkes himself, "that after the affair of the North Briton, the government bribed one of my servants to steal a part of 'The Essay on Woman,' and the other pieces out of my house."

mate friend, the duke of Grafton, had got into place along with Mr Pitt. On the 1st of November, 1766, the author of the 'North Briton' addressed a letter to the duke, in which he congratulated his native country, "that a nobleman of his grace's superior talents and inflexible integrity was at the head of the most important department of the state." He added at the same time, "that though he had been cut off from the body of his majesty's subjects by a cruel and unjust proscription, he had never entertained an idea inconsistent with the duty of a good subject. My heart," continues he, "still retains all its former warmth for the dignity of England, and the glory of its sovereign. I have not associated with the traitors to our liberties, nor made a single connexion with any man that is dangerous, or even suspected by the friends of the protestant family on the throne. I now hope that the rigour of a long unmerited exile is past, and that I may be allowed to continue in the land, and among the friends of liberty. I wish, my lord, to owe this to the mercy of the prince. I entreat your grace to lay me with all humility at the king's feet, with the truest assurances that I never have, in any moment of my life, swerved from the duty and allegiance I owe to my sovereign, and that I implore, and in every thing submit to, his majesty's clemency." To this letter no attention was paid; and to a verbal message to the same purpose, delivered by Mr Fitzherbert, a common friend, the cold reply was returned,—“Mr Wilkes must write to Lord Chatham.” This advice he refused to comply with, and finding himself exposed to the hourly danger of imprisonment, in consequence of his outlawry being kept hanging over his head, he thought fit to retire to Paris, whence he despatched a bitter philippic addressed to the new minister, dated December 12th, 1766. In this paper he observed that he had repaired to England with the gayest and most lively hopes; “but that when he found his pardon was to be bought with the sacrifice of his honour, he had the virtue not to hesitate. I spurned at the proposal,” adds he, “and left my dear native London with a heart full of grief that my fairest hopes were blasted,—of humiliation that I had given an easy faith to the promises of a minister and a courtier,—and of astonishment that a nobleman of parts and discernment could continue in an infatuation, from which the conduct of Lord Chatham had recovered every other man in the nation.”

Soon after this Wilkes published a variety of letters and papers concerning himself, and at length ventured once more to return to his native country in 1768. Being now determined, without recurring to the intervention of any of the ministers, to throw himself on his majesty's generosity, he wrote a submissive letter to the king, which was delivered at Buckingham-house. About the same time he published 'Animadversions on Sir John Cust's Speech,' and soon after announced 'A History of England, from the Revolution to the accession of the Brunswick line, by John Wilkes.' His conduct was now marked by great boldness; for although liable to be made a prisoner by a common tipstaff, yet he determined to appear again in London, and even offer himself as a candidate for the representation of the first city in the empire. On the show of hands at Guildhall, March 16th, 1768, he was declared duly elected; but a poll being demanded, and seven candidates appearing on the hustings, this attempt proved unsuccessful, although there was a most respectable appearance of the livery in his

favour, he having no less than 1247 votes. Nothing daunted by this repulse, he next became a candidate for the county of Middlesex, and on March 28th was elected one of the knights of the shire.

He was thus far triumphant; but the terrors of the law still hung suspended over his head, and he was now anxious either to dissipate or encounter their fury. He accordingly surrendered himself to the court of king's bench; but as the chief-justice and the other judges declared that they had no power to commit him, in consequence of his voluntary appearance, he was discharged. A *capias allegatum*, however, brought him in due technical form within their jurisdiction, and he was committed to prison. The subject of the outlawry was argued, May 7th, by Mr Sergeant Glynn, as leading counsel in behalf of the defendant, and Mr, afterwards Lord Thurlow, for the crown. In the course of next term this was at length declared illegal; but the two verdicts obtained against him for publishing the 'North Briton,' and printing and publishing the 'Essay on Woman,' were unanimously confirmed. For the first offence he was sentenced to pay a fine of £500, and to a further imprisonment of ten months, making twelve in all; and for the second, he was subjected to a like fine, to suffer twelve months' additional imprisonment, and to find two securities for his good behaviour for seven years, of £500 each, while he himself was to be bound in £1000. These sentences were deemed severe even by moderate men.<sup>a</sup>

On the meeting of parliament, he applied to the house of commons for relief, and was brought twice to the bar; but his petition was declared frivolous. Soon after this, in consequence of a riot in St George's fields, the military were called out. An imprudent letter from Lord Weymouth, then secretary of state, addressed to the chairman of the bench of justices, expressive of the highest approbation of the late proceedings on the part of the magistrates, who had invoked the assistance of the soldiery, having been seen by Wilkes, he immediately published it, with some introductory remarks. Lord Weymouth on this complained of a breach of privilege, and the house of commons, after voting it to be "an insolent, scandalous, and seditious libel," on the motion of Lord Barrington, the secretary at war, and Rigby, the paymaster of the forces, again expelled Mr Wilkes.

The freeholders of Middlesex having met to put a candidate in nomination, the aldermen Sawbridge and Townshend, both of them members of parliament, and at that time strangers to Mr Wilkes, recommended the re-election of their former representative, which accordingly took place. On this, the house of commons declared the election void, and voted Mr Wilkes incapable of sitting in that parliament. The sheriffs immediately proceeded to a new choice, on which he was once more returned; but on the fourth election, Colonel Luttrell, afterwards

<sup>a</sup> While a prisoner, Wilkes was at the zenith of his fame. Subscriptions were opened for payment of his debts; valuable presents were conferred on him; and his likenesses were multiplied to such an extent, that his portrait squinted at the traveller from the sign-boards of half the inns in the kingdom. He used to relate that, one day, an old lady, behind whom he happened to be walking, exclaimed, with much spleen, as she looked up to one of his public-house profiles, "Ah! he swings everywhere but where he ought!" The populace were so incensed, that by way of showing their respect for a man whom they deemed persecuted on account of his attachment to the liberties of their country, they attempted, a short time afterwards, to procure a general illumination on the evening of his birth-day.



Lord Carhampton, who had vacated his seat in parliament expressly for this purpose, and obtained 296 votes, was declared duly elected, although Mr Wilkes had polled 1243. The whole of these proceedings were so scandalous in themselves, and so little consonant to the principles of justice, that the nation became incensed against their representatives; and their successors, as if afraid of sharing their disgrace, would not permit the minutes to remain on the face of their records. Mr Wilkes being no longer incapacitated from obtaining a legal remedy against the secretary of state who had granted the general warrant for his apprehension, now brought an action against Lord Halifax, and recovered a verdict for £4000. This, together with £1000 from Mr Wood, was paid out of the civil list. On the expiration of his imprisonment he was sworn in alderman in opposition to the opinion of the crown-lawyers, who attempted to prove him incapacitated from discharging that office. On July 3d, 1771, he filled the office of sheriff; on October 5th, 1774, was elected lord-mayor; and a few days afterwards returned a fifth time for the county of Middlesex.

During the whole of the memorable and unfortunate contest with America, Wilkes exhibited himself a steadfast enemy to the measures of taxation and subjugation. On February 6th, 1775, when the house of commons passed a vote declaring that 'a rebellion' existed within the province of Massachusetts bay, he opposed the address on the grounds of its being unfounded, rash, and sanguinary:—"It draws the sword unjustly against America," he said. "But before administration are suffered to plunge the nation into the horrors of a civil war,—before they are permitted to force Englishmen to sheathe their swords in the bowels of their fellow-subjects,—I hope this house will seriously weigh the original ground and cause of this unhappy dispute, and, in time, reflect whether justice is on our side, and gives a sanction to the intended hostile proceedings. The assumed right of taxation, without the consent of the subject, is plainly the primary cause of the present quarrel. Have we then, Sir, any right to tax the Americans? *That* is the great important question! The fundamental laws of human nature and the principles of the English constitution are equally repugnant to the claim. The very idea of property excludes the right of another's taking any thing from me without my consent, otherwise I cannot call it my own. No tenure can be so precarious as the will of another. What property have I in what another person can seize at his pleasure? If any part of my property is subject to the discretionary power of others, the whole may be so likewise. If we can tax the Americans without their consent, they have no property,—nothing they can call their own with certainty,—for we might by violence take the whole as well as the part. The words *liberty* and *property*, so dear to an Englishman, so pleasing in our ears, would become a cruel mockery, an insult to an American. The laws of society are professedly calculated to secure the property of each individual,—of every subject of the state. This point is no less clearly determined by the great principles of that happy constitution under which we live. All subsidies to the crown have always been considered, and expressly declared to be grants from the commons of the realm,—free gifts from the people. Their full consent is stated in the grant. Much has been said of the palatinate of Chester and the principality of Wales, and the period of their taxation; but, Sir, there

is a more remarkable case in point, which alone would determine this question. If gentlemen will search the records in the Tower, and the chapel of the Rolls, they will find that the town of Calais, in France, when it belonged to the imperial crown of this realm, was not taxed till it sent a representative to parliament. A Thomas Fowler actually sat and voted in this house as a burgess of the town of Calais. From that period, and not till then, was Calais taxed. The writ out of chancery and the return in the reign of Edward VI. are still extant."

A few days after this, on a motion for rescinding the famous vote concerning his own expulsion, the member for Middlesex, in still stronger language, expressed his detestation of the contest with the Americans, which he termed "an unjust felonious war; because," added he, "the primary cause and confessed origin of it is, to attempt to take their money from them without their consent, contrary to the common rights of all mankind, and those great fundamental principles of the English constitution for which Hampden bled. I assert, Sir, that it is in consequence a murderous war; because it is an effort to deprive men of their lives for standing up in the just cause of the defence of their property, and their clear rights. It becomes no less a murderous war with respect to many of our fellow-subjects of this island; for every man, either of the navy or army, who has been sent to America, and fallen a victim to this unnatural and unjust contest, has, in my opinion, been murdered by the administration, and his blood lies at their door. Such war, I fear, Sir, will draw down the vengeance of heaven upon this devoted kingdom." "I speak, Sir," he continued, "as a firm friend to England and America, but still more to universal liberty and the rights of mankind. I trust no part of the subjects of this vast empire will ever submit to be slaves. I am sure the Americans are too high-spirited to brook the idea. Your whole power, and that of your allies, if you had any,—even of all the German troops, of all the ruffians from the North whom you can hire,—cannot effect so wicked a purpose. The conduct of the present administration has already wrested the sceptre of America out of the hands of our sovereign, and he has now scarcely even a post-master left in the whole northern continent. More than half the empire is already lost, and almost all the rest is in confusion and anarchy. The ministry have brought our sovereign into a more disgraceful situation than any crowned head now living. He alone has already lost, by their fatal counsels, more territory than the three great united powers of Russia, Austria, and Prussia have, by a wicked confederacy, robbed Poland of, and by equal acts of violence and injustice from administration."

During the whole of the American war Wilkes was the zealous opponent of Lord North and his measures. As lord-mayor of London, he presented petitions, addresses, and remonstrances against it; as a member of parliament, he voted and spoke in opposition to it; he even proposed an impeachment of the premier, and sat as the chairman of a respectable body of citizens who met to discuss the question. During the riots in 1780, he acted the part of an honest, able, and intrepid magistrate, having been eminently serviceable in preserving the bank from pillage; on this occasion he received the thanks of the privy council, and soon after repaired to court, where he was most graciously received.

On the accession of the Rockingham administration, towards the

close of the American war, he seized a critical moment for addressing the house on the subject of his wrongs, and on the 3d of May, 1782, it was at length resolved "that all the declarations, orders, and resolutions of that house, respecting the election of John Wilkes, Esq. be expunged from the journals of the house, as subversive of the rights of the whole body of electors in the kingdom." Considering this, with great propriety, rather as the triumph of his constituents than of the individual who represented them, he immediately addressed a letter to the electors of Middlesex, in which he congratulates them on the signal reparation they had now obtained for their "violated franchise, and the injuries they had sustained under the former flagitious administration."

When a schism had taken place among the whigs in consequence of the death of their leader, the earl of Shelburne attained the supreme power, and concluded a peace with America. This measure, then so much condemned, and now so much praised, received the approbation of Wilkes at a period when the clamour of party drowned the voice of reason; he accordingly defended it at a meeting of his constituents, but was opposed by his colleague, Mr Byng, and lost much of his influence with the freeholders on this occasion. His defence of Mr Hastings, also, tended not a little to alienate the affections of many of his friends. The success of the coalition, which appeared to him a criminal struggle for power, induced him soon after this to retire from parliament. From this period, he rarely meddled with political affairs, deeming himself 'an extinguished volcano;' and occupied, or rather amused, his declining years, by fulfilling his duties as chamberlain of the city of London, which lucrative office he had fortunately obtained in 1779. During the greater part of the year he resided either in his daughter's house in Grosvenor Square, or at his own at Kensington Gore, whence he repaired daily to his office in Guildhall, dedicating the mornings to business, and the evenings to the pleasures of literature, and the society of a few chosen friends. Two or three months of the summer-season were spent at his villa—or villakin, as he was accustomed jocularly to term it—at Sandham in the isle of Wight. He died on the 26th of December, 1797.

In his person Wilkes was tall, and so very thin, that he appeared towards the latter part of his existence to be affected with a marasmus. His face was sallow. His eyes always possessed an unfortunate cast, which but too readily exposed him to the malignity of the artists hired to caricature him. He himself was sensible of this imperfection, and was indeed the first to laugh at it. During the hey-day of his popularity he was accustomed to dress with great elegance, and generally appeared in a sword and laced clothes; but toward the latter part of his life he wore the same suit, consisting of a scarlet coat, and buff waistcoat and breeches, for many years. To the very last he was fond of exercise, and it was usual with him to walk daily, in his cocked hat, rosette, military boots, &c., all the way from Kensington to the city, unmoved by the solicitations of hackney coachmen, who offered their services in vain.

"England," says a writer in the 'Monthly Review,' "must reckon Wilkes among her most able and successful demagogues. Between the rights of the people, the privileges of parliament, and the prerogatives of the crown, there has ever been a wide tract of debatable ground, of uninclosed property, of undefined boundary. Law is silent and pre-

scription faulters about these constitutional questions. It is therefore the policy of each party to take its claims at the highest, and to wrestle for them at convenient opportunities. Those demagogues who agitate such questions during war, when the influence and patronage of government are greatest, are commonly foiled; and thus they occasion a retrogression of liberty or of popular power. Those demagogues, on the contrary, who move such questions during peace, or under insipid administrations, when the people gape for the occupation of public and collective effort, have often succeeded. Wilkes was of this wiser class of agitators. The whole force of his talent, which was energetic, and of his industry, which was unrelenting, he heartily devoted to the cause which he undertook, and with a vehemence and perseverance that gave him the victory. He delivered public men from the fear of general warrants; and he obtained for voters the right of setting aside a parliamentary disqualification. For a statesman, however, he indulged too much in personalities, and became more formidable as an enemy than efficacious as a friend. Great as a speaker, and greater as a writer, he carried perhaps the arts of style to the utmost limits of good and sound taste: but he is not reproached, like Johnson, Gibbon, and Burke, with the wanton and excessive use of ornament."

It was the misfortune of Mr Wilkes, on his first entrance into life, to become acquainted with a number of debauched young noblemen. With these he indulged in a gay but delusive round of dissipation, that ruined his fortune, and added but little to his reputation. A few years after his marriage he separated from his wife, whom he had treated with great injustice and cruelty; but to the last hour of his existence he was fondly attached to his daughter. As a writer he distinguished himself by a variety of publications, all of which discover an easy style, a ready flow of wit, a keen and piercing satire, and a rich variety of classical allusions. He lived for many years in great intimacy with the most eminent literary characters of the day,—such as Lloyd, Churchill, Thornton, Sterne, the bishop of Salisbury, Horne Tooke, &c. As an orator he was deficient in two of the qualifications considered eminently necessary by Cicero, for his person and his voice were but ill-qualified for public exhibition; yet his speeches display much research and information, and were accompanied by a boldness of assertion, and bitterness of invective, that rendered them poignant and delectable to all but the objects of his attack. Throughout life he abused the Scotch with extraordinary bitterness; and never lost an opportunity of expressing his contempt for 'the land o' cakes.' "Among all the flights"—said he, during a discussion with Johnson on the genius of Shakspeare—"among all the vagaries of that author's imagination, the boldest certainly is that of Birnam wood being brought to Dunsinane; making a wood where there never was a shrub! A wood in Scotland! Ha! ha! ha!"

### Lord-Chief-Justice Eyre.

BORN A. D. 1724.—DIED A. D. 1799.

LORD-CHIEF-JUSTICE EYRE was a native of Wiltshire. His family was connected with that of Lord Pembroke. He received his educa-

tion at Winchester and Oxford, whence he proceeded to one of the inns of court. At an early period of his professional life, we find him one of the four common pleaders belonging to the city of London, who purchase their situations, and are commonly called the city-counsel. He was at this time not known beyond the practice of the lord-mayor's and sheriff's courts, and had displayed no particular tokens of future eminence.

At this period Sir William Morton was recorder of London. He had quitted the practice of the bar, and confined himself to the duties of that respectable office. He had been brought into parliament by the influence of the duke of Bedford, and was respectable from private fortune as well as public situation. He was now getting old, and applied to the court of aldermen for leave to appoint a deputy to assist him in his official duties. The common-sergeant, the second law-officer in the corporation of London, had an evident claim to such an appointment. Mr Nugent, a most amiable and excellent man, though of no great professional name, now filled that situation. These gentlemen, however, having differed on some points of legal discussion that had been officially proposed to their consideration, such a coolness had taken place between them, that Mr Eyre, who had gained the favour of Sir William Morton, was now proposed by him to be deputy-recorder, and his influence overbearing that of Mr Nugent, obtained the appointment for him.

Mr Eyre was now elevated into importance; and though the recorder may have indulged his splenetic aversion in passing by the common-sergeant on this occasion, it soon appeared that he had nominated an assistant who possessed knowledge and abilities adequate to his station. On the death of his patron in the year 1762, Mr Eyre was elected by the court of aldermen to succeed him. As recorder of London, he now enjoyed an office of great respectability, as well as considerable emolument. It also gave him the distinction of a silk gown in Westminster-hall, and precedency after the sergeant-at-law.

The affair of Wilkes gave the recorder not a little trouble. A very large majority of the livery espoused every measure that was brought forward in opposition to government, and the corporation itself became at length subject to the predominating influence of Wilkes and his cause. In this state of things, the recorder conducted himself with firmness; but he could only offer his counsel, and passively submit to the voice of the corporation. At length a remonstrance to the throne was proposed and carried in a court of common-council, which contained such opinions, that the recorder peremptorily refused to exercise his official functions on the occasion. He represented it as enforcing doctrines which he should ever oppose, and expressed in language unfit for the sovereign to hear. He, therefore, declined being the organ by which his majesty should receive such an insult. Sir James Hodges, the town-clerk, supplied the place of the recorder on this occasion. The recorder himself was summoned to justify his conduct before the common-council, and his speech on that occasion was not calculated to avert the vote of censure which followed it. At this crisis, such conduct was certain of its reward; and the recorder was, in the year 1772, appointed a baron of his majesty's exchequer. A short time subsequent to his possession of the ermine, on a question proposed to

Mr. LITTLE, in endeavouring to show that the Government were not doing their duty, and his attack on Mr. Herbert for repudiating responsibility, was a bold attempt to defeat Mr. Green. He said that Mr. Herbert had been in the Opposition since the break-up of the Unionist alliance, and that he had been in the Opposition since the break-up of the Unionist alliance. He said that Mr. Herbert had been in the Opposition since the break-up of the Unionist alliance, and that he had been in the Opposition since the break-up of the Unionist alliance. He said that Mr. Herbert had been in the Opposition since the break-up of the Unionist alliance, and that he had been in the Opposition since the break-up of the Unionist alliance.

tion,—their indecisive conduct,—their mistaken lenity ; and attributed, in a great measure, all the miscarriages that had hitherto happened to a want of *firmness, alacrity, and information*. To soften this direct charge against the puppets in power, he attributed our disappointments more to wrong information than any thing else, and congratulated the house on the conversion of administration. In fine, he predicted two things : that our arms would in the end prove victorious, perhaps without much bloodshed ; but whether or not, they would prove victorious : the inevitable consequence of which would be, the obtaining a revenue towards easing the heavy burdens borne by the people of this country.

“ Mr Ellis,” this writer continues, “ as a parliamentary speaker, is certainly very able. He is well-acquainted with men and books, practice and speculation. Long trained to business, and the various details of almost every official board, he speaks on every subject connected with them with perspicuity, confidence, and precision. Few persons, if any in the house, either in or out of administration, can venture to contend with him in this line with any prospect of success. To a sound native understanding, he has united a close and judicious attention to business ; the result of which is, that he is one of the best-informed men in the house of commons. His oratory is not shining or brilliant, but his discourses are all regular, correct, and finished. He delivers himself in the language of a gentleman and a scholar, and with an elegance and conciseness equalled by few, and surpassed scarcely by any. He never fails to close his speeches by proving his arguments on the clearest principles of logical deduction, allowing his facts to be true. In fine, he is no less dexterous at demolishing the arguments of his opponents, than in raising and judiciously constructing his own. On the other hand, when hard pressed, he suits himself to his situation ; and is as ingenious in evading, palliating, explaining away, and straining precedents, as he is at other times persuasive, logical, and convincing. He then learns to magnify trifles, and trace similitudes where there never existed a likeness. He can promise, because he is not responsible ; he can venture to predict, because he does not pretend to inspiration. He may deny, or assert, when the proofs are not within reach. On the whole, though he is one of the ablest speakers administration have to boast of, and much the ablest support they have in the moment of difficulty, yet he has a certain finicalness in his voice and manner, which is no less fatal to his pretensions to the rank of a first-rate energetic orator, than the necessity arising from his political views, emoluments, and pursuits, is often to his arguments, deductions, and abstract definitions.” By another writer his oratory has been described “ as a stream that flowed so smoothly, and was at the same time so shallow, that it seemed to design to let every pebble it passed over be distinguished.” His manners, the same writer describes as so courteous, that “ had he been a hermit, he would have bowed to a cock-sparrow.”

In 1782 he took the colonial secretaryship at the king's express desire, but soon afterwards again resigned office. He supported the coalition ministry against Pitt until 1793, when he saw it convenient to secede from the opposition. Next year he was raised to the peerage by the title of Mendip. From this period he mixed little in public life. His lordship died without issue on the 2d of February, 1802.

## Petty, Marquess of Lansdowne.

BORN A. D. 1737.—DIED A. D. 1805.

THE greater portion of this nobleman's political life was spent in the period we are now treating of, while earl of Shelburne. He had withdrawn from public life for some years previous to the French revolution, and although that crisis drew him from his retirement, and he saw it to be his duty to support the Fox party, yet he took no active lead in any of the measures of the day.

William Fitzmaurice Petty was the elder son of Baron Wycombe. He entered the guards in early life, and served some time abroad as a volunteer under the duke of Brunswick. At the termination of the seven years' war he returned to England, and was appointed aid-de-camp to George III. in 1760. In the following year he entered parliament as representative for Chipping-Wycombe; and in the course of the same year took his seat in the house of peers on succeeding to his father's title of earl of Shelburne.

Lord Shelburne strenuously opposed the treaty of peace of 1762; and was rewarded for his exertions by the presidency of the board of trade, and a seat in the privy-council. Soon afterwards, however, he threw up his appointments, and joined himself to Pitt's party.

"We find Lord Shelburne in the cabinet as one of Lord Chatham's secretaries of state, in the spring of 1767, when the American port-duties were devised elsewhere, but publicly supported by a faithless chancellor of the exchequer,<sup>1</sup> contrary to the sentiments of his colleagues in office. This," continues a contemporary of these transactions, "is the prevailing opinion: he is not forthcoming to answer for himself; but as no man who knew him entertains a single doubt of his unbounded ambition, his versatility and want of system, charity obliges, and common sense urges us to suppose, that the duke of Grafton, and the lords Chatham, Shelburne, and Camden, be their faults what they may in other respects, would hardly have consented to a measure which would at once have emptied them of every pretension to public virtue or political value, if they had not been compelled by a power greater or as great as the king himself. Lord Shelburne, therefore, we may presume, pushed on by this sovereign irresistible momentum, gave way; the consequence of which was, that we were presented with that famous law for laying duties on tea, paper, painters' colours, and glass. The administration we have just been speaking of, the blackest and the most destructive this nation ever saw, was in its dissolution no less extraordinary than in its formation. It was no sooner imbodyed than its ruin was determined. The noble lord<sup>2</sup> who was at the head of it, lost his senses, as well as his health and popularity. The chancellor of the exchequer,<sup>3</sup> who always hated, envied, and feared him, profited of the glorious opportunity: he sowed, with the most wicked and able malignity, jealousies and animosities, that became impossible to cure or remove. He paid his court alternately in the closet, and to the house of

<sup>1</sup> Charles Townshend.

<sup>2</sup> Lord Chatham.

<sup>3</sup> Charles Townshend.



Bedford: and when he had rendered every man in the cabinet hateful to the public, contemptible at the council-table, and despicable in parliament, he then rendered them hateful and despicable to each other. The last act of his life, more immediately relating to the noble lord who is the subject of this article, will serve as a specimen of the manner those mere ministerial phantoms, as they passed in succession, were treated and dismissed. In the summer of 1767 the views of France upon Corsica became too apparent to be longer permitted with indifference by an English administration. Lord Shelburne, as secretary of state for the southern department, with the approbation of the other members of the cabinet, gave instructions to our minister at the French court to remonstrate against the measure of making a conquest of Corsica. Choiseul—who knew the imbecility of those ministerial shadows that then occupied the several responsible offices of the state—treated the remonstrance with the contempt that was natural. The noble lord<sup>4</sup> who made it could not endure this, and instantly, without leave or notice at either side of the water, returned to England. What was the consequence? The French ambassador here received the fullest assurances—and from an authority that could not be questioned—that Lord Shelburne acted entirely on his own head. The remonstrance was disclaimed by the other members of administration; his lordship was dismissed, and the very person who remonstrated appointed secretary of state.

“ His lordship from that instant commenced a violent partisan against the measures of the court, and on many occasions has proved a very powerful adversary. He joined the minister in the measure of new modelling the East India company, and some other matters of less consequence, which has given rise to several reports of his again returning into office, under the present court-system. This, however, can hardly be credited, unless by those who would wish to represent him as one of the most weak, as well as the most unprincipled men that ever appeared upon the public stage.

“ His opinions delivered in parliament relative to the unhappy disputes which distract, divide, and indeed threaten the destruction, if not total dissolution, of this once glorious and envied empire, materially correspond, or rather seem to be copied from those avowed by his patron and confidential friend.<sup>5</sup> And here we think it a part of our duty to give the fullest testimony in their favour, and at the same time to submit a short sketch of them to our readers. His lordship has uniformly—at least in his parliamentary speeches on the subject—contended for the supreme dominion of this country over all its members and dependencies, as exercised through that true constitutional medium, the executive power of the state. On this ground he has maintained the prerogative of the sovereign respecting the exclusive unconditional right he has to the ordering and directing the military force of the nation under the dernier control of parliament, and the inherent right of the legislature to enact certain laws that shall be binding on all the members of the empire. This general outline will be more fully understood by the following explanation. His lordship thinks that the sovereign of Great Britain may send or order his troops to America or Ireland,

<sup>4</sup> Lord Rochford.

<sup>5</sup> Lord Chatham.

or withdraw them at pleasure ; and that he can no more part with this grand prerogative, notwithstanding any promise, concession, or engagement he may have made, or may hereafter make, than he can with his crown ; and that the parliament have a right to pass laws for regulating the commerce of Ireland and America, with all the necessary consequences of enforcing them by establishing courts of admiralty, and creating penalties for their due and just observance. On the other hand he is equally clear, that the parliament have no right to tax unrepresented America ; that it is a principle in this constitution, that all its native subjects are entitled to equal privileges, the most important and leading of which is the granting their own money ; and that the injustice of robbing the colonists of this sacred and invaluable franchise can only be equalled by the folly, madness, and inexpediency of the attempt.

“ His lordship, though a man of strong speculative abilities, was put into offices of great trust much too early. His youth and inexperience were not to be balanced by the mere raw efforts of a natural good understanding. A knowledge of business, and the habits that are acquired by an intimate acquaintance with it, are not to be compensated by any degree of speculative research, however ably or diligently pursued ; and we are not backward in declaring this very important truth, that one of the greatest misfortunes of this present reign has been, that boys have been made ministers, and that closet-arrangements have superseded the just pretensions of long experience and official merit. This observation is by no means particularly pointed at the noble lord, nor, if it were, would it be at present properly applied.

“ His lordship's talents as a parliamentary speaker are well-known. He abounds in information well-worthy the attention of his noble auditory, and of the very ministers whose measures he opposes. His speeches bear the appearance of having been studied and arranged previous to their delivery ; they are judiciously conceived, sententious, and correct ; and never fail of impressing his sentiments in the most pointed and perspicuous manner. His general acquaintance with books, with the political history of Europe, the general interests of commerce, and particularly those of the British empire, are evident proofs of his industry and sound judgment. In fine, he is one of the most useful speakers in the house of lords, on the part of opposition ; his absence or defection therefore would, at this important crisis, be most severely felt. On the other hand, his lordship's harangues, though delivered with facility, have too much the appearance of art and study ; while his constant appeals to the candour and indulgence of his hearers are evidently mere traps for applause, and by their frequent repetition become tiresome and disgusting.”

On the overthrow of the North administration in 1782, and the accession of the marquess of Rockingham to the premiership, Lord Shelburne, who had headed the opposition in the house of lords since the death of Chatham, became secretary of state for foreign affairs, while the home department was confided to Fox. But when, on the death of the marquess, Lord Shelburne was elevated to the premiership, Fox and his most distinguished colleagues threw up their offices, and by coalescing with North, drove Shelburne from office.

After the dissolution of the coalition ministry, Shelburne might have

resumed office, but not the premiership. He declined an appointment, but was rewarded for his past services with the titles of Marquess of Lansdowne and Earl of Wycombe. From this period, with the exception already noticed, the marquess retired wholly from public life, and devoted himself to the cultivation of literature and the fine arts, until his death on the 7th of May, 1805.

The marquess was twice married. By his first wife—a daughter of the earl of Granville—he had two sons. By his second—a sister of the earl of Upper Ossory—he had one son, the present marquess.

## **Fitzroy, Duke of Grafton.**

BORN A. D. 1735.—DIED A. D. 1811.

THIS nobleman retired from public life at so early an age, that in his political character he belongs to the period now under consideration. He was the son of Lord Augustus Fitzroy, third son of the second duke of Grafton.

In November, 1756, he was appointed a lord of the bedchamber to the prince of Wales; in the same year he took his seat in parliament as member for St Edmundsbury. In 1757 he succeeded to his grandfather's titles, and was called up to the house of lords.

“ Upon the arrangements proposed and carried into execution, under the patronage and interference of the late duke of Cumberland in 1765, commonly called the Rockingham administration, his grace was appointed one of the secretaries of state, and continued in that situation till after the conclusion of the session, when he thought proper to resign about the month of June, 1766. This resignation, or sudden desertion of his friends, is what has puzzled every man, who does not choose to form his opinions on mere popular reports, or party-misrepresentations, originating in vain surmises, in exaggerated anecdotes, or in spleen, disappointment, and personal pique. In this state of indecision we have nothing to do but to report facts, and leave the public to form their conclusions.

“ Some time in the course of the session, finding a most formidable opposition to the measures of administration, he lamented its weakness, and said, for his part, he could not think of much longer remaining a member of it; because, with the best dispositions to serve their country, the present ministers every day experienced a want of support both in parliament and elsewhere. He added, though he positively intended to resign, that he would, if called upon again, cheerfully join in any future administration that should be formed upon a larger basis, particularly if a certain great man,<sup>1</sup> a leading member of the other house, were to be at the head of it. On this open declaration in parliament, two observations were made at the time by a few. In two months after, they were repeated with more confidence, and became more generally believed. The first political conjecture was, that his grace had learned that his party had lost their power, and that a change of ministry was soon to take place, in the arrangement of which Mr Pitt was

<sup>1</sup> Mr Pitt.

to take the lead; the other—which was rather the effect of what followed, than of any thing which then appeared—that his grace was employed to throw out this hint as a bait to the great man, the matter being previously considered and determined on, in order to strip him of his popularity. None of these secret transactions can in our opinion be decided but by the parties themselves. Every one on such occasions will or ought to think for himself; under that privilege we can hardly be persuaded that his grace designedly stooped so low as to be the pimp, spy, or tool of any party, much less of the avowed authors of a court-system, formed on the most rigid doctrines of Filmer, Leslie, and Barclay. He was liable to error; but we can hardly bring ourselves to believe that he was actuated by treachery, or swayed by deliberate malice.

“The time soon approached when his grace was to appear entirely in a new light. On the advancement of Mr Pitt to the peerage, in Aug. 1766, his grace was appointed first lord of the treasury; the new-created earl of Chatham lord-privy-seal, being supposed to be the ostensible minister. His lordship’s illness depriving the young first commissioner of his assistance, the nominal command of course devolved on his grace. A kind of political juggle took place. Charles Townshend wavered, staggered, and fell. Lord Chatham threw himself on the illustrious house of Bedford. The new financier grew giddy from pride or incapacity; or rather, we suspect, through the arts of those who were set about him to betray him. At this fatal instant, in the very whirlwind of folly, treachery, vanity, and treason against the country, were the dearest interests of the British empire sacrificed. The old whigs under Lord Rockingham were either disgraced or seduced; the new-created earl was compelled, by the most unequivocal proofs, to write a satire on all future patriots, and pretensions to public spirit; and the noble duke, who is the subject of the present observations, after taking the most vigorous and decided part in the repeal of the stamp act, through the treachery of his chancellor of the exchequer,<sup>2</sup> the influence of the closet,—the sudden change of sentiments of that hallowed mansion, and the consequences arising from such a change of sentiments among the king’s friends,—at least acquiesced in the American port duties.<sup>3</sup>

“It is no part of our plan to enter into any discussion on the right of the commons of Great Britain to tax unrepresented America,—though we do not retain a single doubt of the impolicy and inexpediency of endeavouring to effect it by force of arms. Be that as it may, it is our duty to relate the part the duke of Grafton took in that business, as first lord of the treasury. This we find very fully stated in his speeches in parliament since his resignation of the office of privy seal, at the opening of the last session; and in part confirmed by his brother ministers; because, if the facts were at first denied, when afterwards

<sup>2</sup> Charles Townshend.

<sup>3</sup> “From that fatal instant,” says the writer of ‘*Characters*,’ from whom we have quoted above, “every thing dear, important, and valuable to this country, was alternately sacrificed to the dark, dangerous designs of a set of men whom nobody knows, somebody pays and employs to effect his despotic purposes; whom nobody can name without hazarding an act of the most cruel injustice; whose cabals Britain hath severely felt the effects of; and her children, to the latest posterity, may probably have cause to execrate in the bitterness of their hearts.”

reasserted and frequently repeated by his grace, they effectually received the fullest and fairest stamp of authenticity,—the objections or denials on the part of administration containing little more than mere quibbles on words, and mistakes relative to trivial circumstances. There is one measure, that of the Middlesex election, and the previous expulsion of Mr Wilkes, which has been solely attributed to his grace. Whether this measure originated with him, or was dictated as an act of duty, we hold him equally responsible to the people. If he acted on pure principles of conviction, we feel for him as an honest, misled man; if he carried it through both houses, contrary to his own opinion, and as a sacrifice at the shrine of magistral oppression and revenge, we do not hesitate to affirm, that his nearest and warmest friends and admirers have good reason to lament, that war entered the royal closet.

“ His grace resigned, in 1770, the post of first commissioner of the treasury, and still continued to support the measures of the court. His obedience to the wishes of his royal master, and his approbation of the measures pursued by those from whom he had just parted, were so kindly received by the person who had it in his power to reward him, that he did not long continue out of office. He was, in the succeeding June twelvemonth, appointed lord-privy-seal; in which post he remained till his late resignation, when he declared boldly and openly against the measures now pursuing against America. The two first sessions after the commencement of the present troubles in America, he spoke and voted with administration. The reasons assigned by his grace for his alteration of conduct were that he had not sufficient information to determine his judgment; that such as was imparted to him was false, or the facts were misrepresented; that he always disapproved of coercing America by force of arms, but hoped in the beginning that the people of that country would submit; that being thus misinformed, he supported measures he would otherwise never have consented to; that although the right had been clear, the asserting of it in the present state of our finances, and of the other powers of Europe, would be inexpedient; that the point of inexpediency became still more glaring and manifest, when the real strength and ability of America came to be revealed, and the actual disposition of its inhabitants seriously and attentively considered; and that the only two specific measures relating to America, which he supported since the spring-session of 1774, were the Boston port and charter bills, which he had been solely induced to do upon false or ill-grounded information, being assured by those whose business it was to be thoroughly acquainted and perfectly satisfied of the real disposition of the inhabitants of Boston, and the people of Massachusetts bay, that it was in the former instance the intention of the Bostonians to make reparation for the tea to the East India company; and in the latter, the earnest wish of the principal land-owners, merchants, and tradesmen of that province, to have their charter altered and modified. Thus, he said, he had been all along deceived directly in matters of fact, misled in matters of opinion, and constrained either to give his support blindfolded, or withhold it on principle. In such a mass of facts, and such a contradiction in conduct, it is impossible to argue even with plausibility, much less decide with candour or precision; but it seems on a transient view, uninformed as we are of the true motives which actuated his grace, rather a little unfortunate that

his eyes were not opened earlier, or that he trusted so much and so long to those of others; for most indubitably, in point of pure principle, unconnected with the events of war, there did not exist a single reason for his supporting the duke of Richmond's motion on the 5th of March, 1776, which did not hold equally strong for his supporting that made by Lord Chatham, almost in the same words, full thirteen months before.

"The duke of Grafton is one of the most persuasive, or rather pathetic speakers in the house. His speeches are delivered in the style of a gentleman and a scholar. His language is chosen, chaste, and correct. His judgment in arranging his matter is not excelled, perhaps not equalled, by any on either side of the house. He may be sometimes flat and confused, but he is never vulgar, slovenly, or ignorant. As he is a strict observer of the decorum of debate, and the dignity of the august assembly in which he has the honour to sit, any deviation from it while he is up, such as talking or changing seats, is very apt to disconcert him and disarrange his ideas. From the same mode of thinking he is ready to catch fire when any coarse or sarcastic expressions fall from his antagonists, or when any thing personal is directed to himself; but even then he generally restrains his feelings, and retorts with the energy and dignity becoming his elevated rank and senatorial situation. Lord Mansfield has more than once felt the effects of this irascible disposition, and that even before his grace came over to opposition; since when there seems a certain acrimony, whenever an opportunity happens, in all his speeches, hinting, if not directly pointed, towards that noble and learned lord. How far this can be reconciled to his former situation, when in high office, and when the learned lord was supposed to influence those counsels which his grace, as prime minister for nearly four years, was presumed to direct, we do not pretend to determine. He is equally liberal of his hints of pernicious counsels having been given, and of the impressions they may have made in a place where in the world they ought to be soonest resisted. He has even ventured so far as to liken addresses of a more modern date to those presented to the infatuated James II.; and, not stopping there, has spoken of the possibility, if not probability, of a similar catastrophe. He has reprehended the king's servants in the strongest terms for their despotic doctrines in parliament, and their correspondent measures, and lamented, in the face of the whole nation, the dangerous effects such doctrines may be productive of, when it is known that they are promulgated, and publicly asserted and maintained by those who have equally the will and opportunity of endeavouring to instil them into the royal ear. On the whole, as he is one of the most able, so, if he could once more regain the confidence of the party he at first embarked with, and the favour and good opinion of the public, he would be, without question, by much the most formidable opponent to the measures of the court in either house of parliament."

His grace was selected by Junius for one of the principal objects of his tremendous invective. On the subject of his appointment to the premiership, in 1771, Junius writes thus: "The spirit of the favourite<sup>4</sup> had some apparent influence upon every administration, and every set

<sup>4</sup> Bute.

of ministers preserved an appearance of duration as long as they submitted to that influence. But there were certain services to be performed for the favourite's security, or to gratify his resentments, which your predecessors in office had the wisdom, or the virtue, not to undertake. A submissive administration was, at last, gradually collected from the deserters of all parties, interests, and connections; and nothing remained but to find a leader for these gallant, well-disciplined troops. Stand forth, my lord, for thou art the man! Lord Bute found no resource of dependence or security in the proud, imposing superiority of Lord Chatham's abilities; the shrewd, inflexible judgment of Mr Grenville; nor in the mild, but determined, integrity of Lord Rockingham. His views and situation required a creature void of all these properties: and he was forced to go through every division, resolution, composition, and refinement of political chemistry, before he happily arrived at the *caput mortuum* of vitriol in your grace. Flat and insipid in your retired state; but brought into action, you become vitriol again. Such are the extremes of alternate indolence or fury, which have governed your whole administration!" The following is conceived in a still more savage strain: "There are some hereditary strokes of character by which a family may be as clearly distinguished as by the blackest features of the human face. Charles the First lived and died a hypocrite; Charles the Second was a hypocrite of another sort, and should have died upon the same scaffold. At the distance of a century, we see their different characters happily revived and blended in your grace. Sullen and severe, without religion; profligate without gaiety, you live like Charles the Second, without being an amiable companion; and, for aught I know, may die as his father did, without the reputation of a martyr."

No one of course supposes that the duke, any more than any other person selected by Junius for the object of his attack, had a strict measure of justice dealt out to him by his masked assailant. But it does appear that his grace's private character was fully open even to the animadversions of Junius: "Did not the duke of Grafton," he asks, "frequently lead his mistress into public, and even place her at the head of his table, as if he had pulled down an ancient temple of Venus, and could bury all decency and shame under the ruins?" "The example of the English nobility may, for aught I know," he observes in another letter, "sufficiently justify the duke of Grafton, when he indulges his genius in all the fashionable excesses of the age; yet, considering his rank and station, I think it would do him more honour to be able to deny the fact, than to defend it by such authority. But if vice itself could be excused, there is yet a certain display of it, a certain outrage to decency, and violation to public decorum, which, for the benefit of society, should never be forgiven. It is not that he kept a mistress at home, but that he constantly attended her abroad;—it is not the private indulgence, but the public insult, of which I complain. The name of Miss Parsons would hardly have been known, if the first lord of the treasury had not led her in triumph through the opera-house, even in the presence of the queen. When we see a man act in this manner, we may admit the shameless depravity of his heart,—but what are we to think of his understanding?"

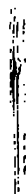
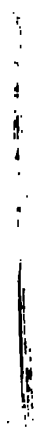
The duke died on the 14th of March, 1811.

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